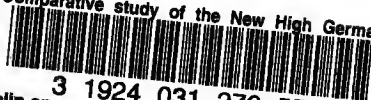


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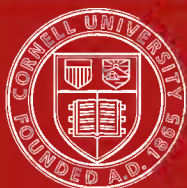
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P. 2197

**COMPARATIVE STUDY**  
OF  
**GERMAN.**

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**WM. W. VALENTINE.**



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*For the Compliments of the Author.*

# COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GERMAN.

He who can see in modern languages nothing but corruption and anomaly, understands but little of the nature of language.

MAX MÜLLER, (*Science of Language.*)

Das Kennenlernen einer fremden Sprache erhöht und schärft notwendig auch das Bewusstsein über die eigene Sprache.

HEYSE, (*System der Sprachwissenschaft.*)

## ERRATA:

Page 6, line 12 from the bottom, for: *for its sound*, read: *for the sound of long a*.

Page 28, line 16 from the bottom, for: *Feminines with toneless e, ancient en*, read: *Feminines with the weak sing. en*.

Page 28, line 14 from the bottom, for: *Composition*, read: *Composition, etc.*

Page 29, line 13 from the top, for: *nachtes, etc.*, read: *nachtes; Goth. nahts, etc.*

Page 36, line 11 from the top, for: *the earlier*, read: *the earlier connective*.

Page 41, line 6 from the bottom, read: *limiting adverb, etc.*

Page 43, line 11 from the top, read: *together in*:

Page 47, line 11 from the top, for: *Comparative Forms*, read: *Superlative*.

Page 50, line 3 from the bottom, for: *some one*, read: *some one, etc.*

Page 51, line 5 from the top for: *coalesce*, read: *combine*.

Page 51, line 11 from the top, for: *the substantives of the coalescent forms*, read: *the substantives of these forms*.

Page 54, line 8 from the top, read: *sein or werden*.

Page 57, line 4 from the top, read: *I did not find it again until to-day*.

Page 66, line 17, read: *the pug-dog had now disappeared*.

[SPECIMEN PAGES.]

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COMPARATIVE STUDY

OF THE

NEW HIGH GERMAN LANGUAGE,

THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL.

BY

WM. W. VALENTINE,  
OF RICHMOND, VIRGINIA.

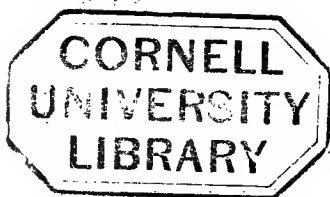
*Formerly Prof. of Modern Languages at Randolph-Macon College, Virginia.*

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Die Offenbarungen der Sprache sind uns ebenso überraschend wie die  
Offenbarungen der Felsen. THE AUTHOR.

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~~280 E 68,~~



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## PREFACE. INTRODUCTION.

### A. THE WORD (*Wortlehre*), containing :

Phonology (*Lautlehre*) and Morphology (*Formenlehre*) ;  
B. Syntax (*Satzlehre*) ; C. Word and Clause Arrangement (*Wort- und Satzstellung*) ; D. Punctuation (*Interpunktion*).

### PHONOLOGY contains :

The Letters (Pronunciation and Orthography) ; The Syllables (Syllabic Division, Accentuation, and Rhythm).

### THE DOCTRINE OF FORMS, OR MORPHOLOGY, contains :

Roots, Stems (bases, themes) and their forms ; Inflection (Declension and Conjugation, the Uninflectionals) ; Derivation and Composition ; Other Formations.

### SYNTAX contains :

Introduction ; The Simple Sentence ; The Compound Sentence or Coördination ; The Complex Sentence or Subordination ; Clause Abridgment ; Figures of Syntax, etc. . . .



FROM REPORT ON  
METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN THE MODERN  
LANGUAGES.

READ BEFORE THE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF VIRGINIA,  
JULY, 1877.

BY PROF. WM. W. VALENTINE,  
OF RICHMOND, VIRGINIA.

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[See *Educational Journal of Virginia* for January, 1878.]

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IN no branch of education have the best means of culture been more neglected than in that of the modern languages. . . . In spite of the apathy in this direction, it is pleasing and encouraging, however, to all who aim at the accomplishment of the best purposes of education, to know that there are some at least who have been awakened to a true appreciation of these interesting vehicles of modern thought—of a civilization, which is, to a large extent, the outgrowth of Christianity, and which on this account is of higher import to us than any ever conceived in the brain or heart of Greek or Roman. . . . This is due in no ordinary degree to the influence of the labors of such men as Maetzner (in French and English), Westphal, Grimm, Koch, Curtius, Schleicher, Müller, Morris, Skeat, Whitney, Hoffmann, Marsh, Kehrein, March, Littré, Chavée and others. . . .

*The modern languages are valuable on account of their means of intellectual training.* The proper application of these means is shown not only in the exercise of the memory, but in the sharpening of the powers of observation and comparison, in the stimulation of the faculties of the mind in the direction of discovery, in careful analysis

## PREFATORY.

and synthesis. In the modern languages, it is true, occur no such intricate phonetic and inflectional systems as in Sanskrit, Greek or Latin. The later systems, however, should be compared with those of the older languages, the losses sustained by the former, as well as the shifts they have made to supply such losses, properly discussed. . . . . One has but to attempt a faithful analysis of French, German or English, in order to learn how they are teeming with attractive syntactical phenomena, many of which are as valuable for purposes of culture as are revealed by a careful study of Greek or Latin. What a treasure we have in our marvelous English syntax, and yet how poorly its means of discipline have been applied! . . . . Max Mueller (Science of Language) says: "He who can see in modern languages nothing but corruption or anomaly, understands but little of the nature of language." . . . .

The modern languages afford important and interesting starting-points in the study of the Science of Language. . . . . They furnish us often with surer, more reliable data in carrying out the comparative method. We are more strongly attached to them because they have to do with *our* surroundings, . . . . and because they are the vehicles of those who give direction to thought in *our* day. . . . . In teaching the modern languages in schools, too much stress can not be laid upon oral instruction, . . . . for it must not be forgotten that these languages are living, moving, and addressed also to the eye and ear. They should be taught by comparison. The phenomena of the foreign language should be compared with those of the mother-tongue, which process will be found available with all intelligent pupils. . . . . With regard to methods of instruction in colleges and universities, it may be stated, that there is among educators so little harmony, so little of the spirit of coöperation; grades of instruction are so unsettled, their working so liable to disturbance from the want of proper preparation on the part of applicants for admission, that the establishment of anything permanent must necessarily be a gradual process. In the college some prominence might be given to the comparative

method with proper text-books. The pupils, besides translating from and into German and French, might also be instructed by . . . . occasional lectures on the history of each language, . . . . and of the people who speak it.

As for universities, it may be said that most of them are doing but little more than what is properly college work. . . . . The comparative method should here receive special attention, including not only Aryan but also other forms of speech. . . . .

*What should be the method for one who wishes to study abroad?* He should, besides acquiring a proper knowledge of the grammar of the foreign language, allow himself, for at least two or more years, all the practice possible in reading, writing, and speaking it. Having done this, he carries with him a ground-work which will render his visit both instructive and agreeable. Most people hold grammars in abhorrence. . . . . These much abused books, however, when properly written, are valuable auxiliaries in the acquisition of language. . . . . Good grammars are codes of laws founded on such usage as exists with the best writers and speakers of the language. In each of these codes the laws should be properly classified, in order to be readily learned, and they can not be readily learned unless so classified. . . .

Bacon says: "He that travelleth into a country before he hath some entrance into the language, goeth to school and not to travel." . . .

"What is here submitted is but a small part of what was originally prepared on this interesting theme." . . . .

---

From "THE ACADEMY," LONDON, ENGLAND, Feb., 1878.

"*The Educational Journal of Virginia*, for January 1878, contains an interesting article by Prof. Valentine, of Richmond, on 'Instruction in Modern Languages.' He begins with a complaint, not unknown in England, that most of the grammars examined, as well as the notes

attached to the Readers and Plays, are sadly wanting in proper grammatical analysis and a true philosophical treatment. . . . He then passes to some more general considerations, and calls attention both to the importance of Modern Languages from the comparative study of language, and to the value of French and German syntax as an intellectual exercise, especially if treated historically. . . ."

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FROM "THE MIRROR OF LITERATURE," LONDON, ENG., 1878.

"In this year's initial number of the *Educational Journal of Virginia*, Professor Wm. W. Valentine has a noteworthy paper on the present 'Methods of Instruction in Modern Languages.' He complains that in the United States—and a considerable portion of his remarks apply with equal force to this country—the best means of culture are more neglected in teaching Modern Languages than in any other branch of education. In an extremely valuable, comprehensive, and suggestive 'Report,' Prof. Valentine points out all the faults and fallacies of the present system in America, and having done that, shows how a scientific and yet simple scheme might easily be introduced into schools and colleges, were professional bodies only aroused from their present wonderful state of apathy. We can not find space here to analyze his reasoning, but trust he will reproduce his paper in book-form, so that it may be made accessible to all."

---

THE above from the "Report" is offered as prefatory to what is to follow from the MS., upon which is based the work now in course of preparation, the publication of which will be followed by that of an exercise book for translation from English into German, and of a 'Comparative Dictionary explaining the difficulties which the student meets with in such translation.

It is hoped that the "Specimen Pages" given below explain satisfactorily the title and purpose of the volume, which will form the highest of the three grades of a series. The method of study here proposed had its inception in Berlin — where the writer was a student for four years — and has been gradually developed with the intensest love and enthusiasm for the subject.

Encouraged by the unusual interest now manifested both in Europe and America with regard to the proper methods of study in German and French, the Author respectfully submits this pamphlet to the educational public.

W. W. V.

RICHMOND, VA., June, 1884.

## INITIALS AND ABBREVIATIONS.

---

A. Sax.	=	Anglo-Saxon.
Comp.	=	Compare.
dialect.	=	dialectic.
Eng.	=	English.
Fr.	=	French.
Ger.	=	German.
Goth.	=	Gothic.
Gr.	=	Greek.
Ital.	=	Italian.
Lat.	=	Latin.
M. E.	=	Middle English.
M. H. G.	=	Middle High German.
N. H. G.	=	New High German.
O. E.	=	Old English.
O. Fr.	=	Old French.
O. Fries.	=	Old Friesic.
O. H. G.	=	Old High German.
O. Norse	=	Old Norse.
O. Sax.	=	Old Saxon.
provin.	=	provincial.
Sansk.	=	Sanskrit.
Span.	=	Spanish.
Vulg.	=	Novum testamentum vulgatae editionis.



## PHONOLOGY.

### THE LETTERS: ORTHOGRAPHY; PRONUNCIATION.

The German alphabet contains twenty-six simple characters.

Table giving the German printed and written characters, with the Roman equivalents and the German names.

Ÿ is not properly a German letter (see —). For ß, usually called esszet, see § —. & is initial, f initial and medial, and s final (see —).

The origin of, and objections to, the present distorted forms of the Latin letters are then given.

The Germans have the same printed character to represent the English printed capitals J and I. 3 occurs in modern German only as an initial letter of a simple word or of an element of a compound, and is always followed by a vowel: ja, yes; behaupten, to assert; je, ever and its compounds, jeder, every; jemals, ever, etc. (see j, —). 3 as initial is never followed by a vowel except in ia! the braying of an ass; and in io! a hunting cry, which is sometimes thus written as in Latin (io) and Greek (iô), but which is more usually written jo! . . .

A correct pronunciation of German, as of every other language, can be acquired only by proper oral instruction, or in the society of those who speak the language with purity. Written systems may, however, be of some assistance to the student. In words essentially German, every letter that is printed or written is, as a rule, also pronounced. In such words, a, e, o, and h are the only letters which are ever silent. The vowels a, e, and o are silent when they are used to lengthen

a vowel (see Geminated Vowels, —, and *ie* —). The letter *h* is silent: 1) when used as a sign of lengthening (see *h*); 2) when final and immediately preceded by a vowel: *nah*, near; *floh*, flea; O. H. G. *floh*; O. Norse *flo*; 3) when medial and preceded by a vowel, although in certain words where it is organic, the phonetic value of a gentle breath is by some claimed for it in this situation. In *stehen*, to stand; M. H. G. *stên*, *stân*; Luther, *stan*; *gehen*, to go; M. H. G. *gên*, *gân*; Luther, *gan*, etc., it is inorganic; in *sehen*, to see; O. H. G. *sêhan*; M. H. G. *sêhen*; *fliehen*, to flee; O. H. G. *fliohan*; M. H. G. *vlihen*, etc., it is organic; 4) *h* is silent in ~~dh~~ *dh*, *dh*, when this combination is the phonetic equivalent of *x* or *ks*: *Wach*, wax; *Lachs*, salmon (see —). (See treatment of each letter and letter combination); 5) it is also silent in combination with *R* in foreign words: *Rheumatismus*, rheumatism (see *Rh*, —). . . . .

### SPECIAL NOTICE OF THE VOWELS.

The simple vowels as well as the modified vowels (*Umlaute*) are either long or short.

*Ä, a*. This vowel is long in *baden*, to bathe; *Schlaf*, sleep; short in *fah*, slack, limber; *balb*, soon. For its sound compare that of *a* in *father*, *bard*. The vowel *a* has never the sound of *a* in *cat*, *wall*, or *fate*. In Germany is heard sometimes the improper *u* or *au* for long *a*, — *Boater* for *Water*, *father*; the improper short *e* for short *a*, — *glett* for *glatt*, smooth. This vowel has suffered less in the root syllable, where it has been protected by the accent (see *Accentuation*). In South Germany occurs occasionally a final and historic *a* for *e* in syllables of inflection and derivation: *Wiesä* for *Wiese*, meadow; O. H. G. *wisâ*, *wisa*. (See also *Phonetic Decay*, —.)

*ÿ, i*, is long in *wider*, against; *Tiger*, tiger; *ihn*, him. (Comp. *ee* in *meet*.) It is short in *billig*, cheap; *Wirth*, host, landlord;

nicht, not. (Comp. *i* in bit.) To short *i* is often, but improperly, given the sound of short *e*: er werd kommen for er wird kommen, he will come.

It is sometimes lost: du liebst 'n for du liebst ihn, thou lovest him. (See § —.) It occurs for *ie* in the reduplicated preterit of some verbs (see Strong Verbs, —): er hing, he hung (O. H. G. hiane, Goth. háihah), from hangen, to hang, etc. The diphthongal sound is still heard in folk-speech in South Germany. It interchanges with *e* as in M. H. G., werden, to become; ich werde, I become; du wirst, thou dost become; Berg, mountain, but Gebirge, mountain chain or range; Erde, earth, but irden, earthen. So M. H. G. erde, O. H. G. érda; M. H. G. irdin, O. H. G. irdin, érdin. Ancient *i* occurs in collectives. Comp. Geschwister, brothers and sisters of a family (M. H. G. geswistrede, Parzival 477, 1), and Schwester, sister; Goth. svistar.

De, ö (*Umlaut*). The sound of long *ö* is produced by pronouncing long *e* with the lips in the position for pronouncing long *o*: Löwe, lion; schön, beautiful; that of short *ö* by pronouncing short *e* with the lips in the position for pronouncing short *o*: Schöpfer, creator; Stöcke, sticks. Like all the *Umlaute* it frequently suffers from a vicious pronunciation even among the educated Germans. This arises from not putting the lips in the *o* position when pronouncing it (*Maulfaulheit*); schen is heard for schön, and Schepfer for Schöpfer. Its phonetic value can only be explained orally. Comp. *eu* in Fr. *peu*, and *i* in bird, *ea* in earl, etc.

The *Umlaut* of geminated *o* is *ö*: Boot, boat, Bötchen, little boat. (See Diminutives .) . . . .

Ue, ü. The sound of long *ü* is produced by pronouncing long German *i* with the lips in the position for pronouncing long *u*: Uebel, evil; müde, tired; that of short *ü* by pronouncing short German *i* with the lips in the position for pronouncing short *u*: Stück, piece; Glück, fortune, luck. Avoid ibel for übel, Stüd for Stück, which are heard even among the educated. (See *ü* above, and au, .) . . . . .

## RULES FOR DETERMINING LONG AND SHORT VOWELS.

The general rule is, that a vowel before a simple consonant is long, and short before a consonant combination. There are, however, many exceptions. Much phonetic corruption has crept in, which is partly due to ignorance, and partly to a disregard of the history of the vowels. The fluctuation is to some extent dialectic.

The original relations between long and short vowels were preserved in Gothic, but became more and more disturbed in High German, beginning with O. H. G. This disturbance increased in M. H. G. and N. H. G. The characteristic feature of New High German is the lengthening of originally short vowels before simple consonants. In New High German words the originally long vowels have become short, as in *inner*, always, M. H. G. *iemer*; *Jammer*, misery, M. H. G. *jāmer*; *lassen* (better *laſſen*), to let, leave; O. H. G. *lāzan*, *lān* (see contraction and Apocope). This arises from the influence of a double consonant. In South Germany the long vowel is still heard (see Accentuation, —). . . .

Then follow special rules with copious examples.

. . . . .

## THE CONSONANTS.

The Old High German dialects differ in the use of the consonants, and the literary documents differ in orthography. In O. H. G. the sonants (medixæ) and surds (tennes) suffer great fluctuation: *bīta* and *pīta*, *Bitte*, request; *bērac* and *pērac*, *Berg*, mountain; *drūt* and *trūt*, *Liebling* (N. H. G. *traut*), favorite; *ganc* and *gang*, *Gang*, gait. In M. H. G. surds and sonants interchange; but no sonant, as a rule, is suffered as a final: M. H. G. *līp*, N. H. G. *Leib*, body; Gen. *des lībes*, N. H. G. *des Leibes*, of the body. There is great fluctuation at present in Germany, as for example between surds and sonants, *t* and

ð, p and b, t and g. In Berlin is heard jüt for gut, and in some dialects g for j. These different values stand in connection with Mute Shifting. (See Grimm's Law, —.)

## SPECIAL.

Ʒ, t. . . . . It is inorganic and euphonic in some words: eigentſich, properly; meinetwegen, on my account, etc. (See Composition, also Epenthesis.) It is inorganic in mittelſt, by means of; nebst, together with (see Prep. —), and in Axt, axe; O. H. G. abhus; A. Sax. äax; Saft, juice; O. H. G. saph; A. Sax. sap, etc., etc. Comp. Eng. anent (North England), M. E. anent, anende, anenst, for anen; A. Sax. on efen; Eng. tyrant, against, amidst, etc., and the spoken oncet (wunst) (provin.) for once. (See Epithesis.)

Ʒh, th, has the same sound as English t. The h in this combination is always silent. It is inorganic in words strictly German. It is organic in Apotheke, apothecary; Theater, theatre; Theodor, Theodore (Lat. Theodorus, Gr. Θεόδωρος). In compounds where they come together accidentally, t and h are, of course, pronounced separately: Truthahn, turkey-cock, etc. (Comp. Eng. pot-house.) In words strictly German, th does not represent Goth. th(þ), and is neither in pronunciation nor origin an aspirate; but represents O. H. G. surd t, Goth. and English sonant d: Thal, valley, dale, Goth. dal; Theil, share, (deal,) Goth. dail; Rath, advice, A. Sax. raed. (See h —.) . . .

## ACCUMULATION OF CONSONANTS.

Each of two or more consonants which occur together should, if possible, have its proper sound. Consonants accumulate in simple words and compounds. It occurs often from the synco-

pation of a vowel: das Kind hüpfet (for older hüpfet), the child hops; Probst or Propst, provost; M. H. G. bröbest and pröbst; O. H. G. probast, from Lat. *praepositus*. (See Syncopation, —.) In compounds they accumulate very often, as with *b*, *t*, *p*, *g*, *k*, etc.: Obstdieb, fruit-thief; Saftpflanze, succulent plant; Schlachtpferd, war-horse. The *j* after *b* and *t* must be distinguished from *j*: Gottselig, godly; Todsfünde, deadly or mortal sin; Blutzeuge, martyr. The letters *b* and *p* often occur together in compounds, and *b* is frequently, but improperly, made to sound like *p*: Erbfürst, hereditary prince, etc. (See Assimilation, —.) . . .

## THE SYLLABLES.

Division of Syllables. Accentuation, and the Rhythm of Prose.

### DIVISION OF SYLLABLES (SILBENTHEILUNG).

A letter may be initial (*Anlaut*), final (*Auslaut*), or medial (*Inlaut*). In Hut, hat, *h* is initial, *u* medial, *t* final. In schledht, bad, *schl* is the composite initial element, *cht* the composite final element, and *e* the simple medial vowel. The first syllable of a word is its initial syllable, the last its final syllable, the others medial. The next to the last is the penult, the next preceding the penult is the antepenult. . . .

The syllables may be divided into stem and affix (i. e. prefix and suffix) syllables. In aufstehen, to rise, get up, auf is the prefix, en the suffix, and steh the stem syllable; steh is a notional syllable, auf and en are relational syllables. (See —.)

The sign used for the division of syllables at the end of a line is the hyphen (das Bindezeichen, Theilungszeichen, or Trennungszeichen), expressed thus (=) with the German text, and thus (-) with the Roman.

The rules for the division of syllables in printing and writing are in German based upon ease of utterance, euphony, and the

preservation of the phonetic values of the letters, without regard to the etymological structure of the words. This fact should be kept in mind in order to appreciate and understand clearly the German method, which differs in some points from the English. Thus the etymological division would give: ge-~~st~~and-en, stood; Warn-~~u~~ng, warning (comp. Eng. un-der-stand-ing, warn-ing); but in printing or writing: ge-~~st~~an-den, Warn-~~u~~ng. So divide: Freun-~~d~~e, friends; Spra-~~ch~~e, language; and not Freun-~~d~~e, Spra-~~ch~~e. Printers and writers, however, do not always regard these rules, and hence we find such a division as ge-~~l~~in-gen, for the proper ge-~~l~~ing-en, to succeed; Erzähl-~~u~~ng-en, for Erzähl-~~u~~ng-en, stories, etc. With some words, again, a division into syllables can not be made without a disregard of the requirements named above. Hence such a division should be avoided, if possible. Thus, in English, *finger* and *language* can not be easily divided into syllables on account of the pronunciation, which for the former is expressed by *fing-ger*, for the latter by *lang-guage*. With German, however, the separation *Fing-er* is proper and according to the pronunciation. (See ng, —.) For the difference between English and German comp.: *lead-er* and Lei-~~t~~er; *loud-er* and lau-~~t~~er; *hav-ing* and ha-~~b~~end; *fall-ing* and fal-~~l~~end; *fish-es* and Fi-~~s~~che. The German would divide *teach-er* into tea-~~ch~~er, *preach-ing* into prea-~~ch~~ing, *build-ing* into buil-~~d~~ing, etc., etc.

## SPECIAL RULES.

. . . . .

## ACCENTUATION.

No visible or written signs of accentuation occur in German poetry or prose. Such signs are used, however, by the philologist, the lexicographer, and the prosodist. The primary tone will be indicated by the acute accent ('), the secondary tone by the grave (`), while the toneless syllables will receive no

visible signs. The rules here given will, it is hoped, be of some assistance to the student. A more elaborate treatment is necessarily excluded. The laws of accentuation will be further noticed under Inflection, Derivation, and Composition, the Adverb, Preposition, and the Prefix Verbs ( ).

In German, the method of accentuation with simple words is for the most part etymological, i. e. the notional or stem syllable receives the primary tone, as, *leb* in *leben*, to live; *zorn* in *zornig*, angry; *bet* in *Gebet*, prayer. An exception to this rule is the derivative *leben'dig*, living, lively, from *Le'ben*, life, the derivatives *leben'digen* (Goethe) (= *lebendig machen*), to quicken, vivify, and *Leben'digkeit*, quickness, vivacity. Here a secondary syllable, *end*, the formative element of the present participle (see ) receives exceptionally the primary tone. Folk-speech in certain localities still shows *le'bendig*. For the tone shifting in *wahr'haf'tig* and *Wahr'haf'tigkeit* from *wahr'haf't*, see below, and also under Derivation and Composition. *Luthe'risch*, from the prop. name *Luther*, is usual, although *Lu'therisch* is also heard.

The primary tone rests upon the separable prefixes of prefix verbs. (See )

The primary tone may be diacritic or distinctive, and rests: 1) upon a dependent particle as in English: *gün'stig*, favorable, but *un'günstig*, unfavorable; 2) upon a prefix usually toneless and inseparable: *Sie sollten ihn lieber be'klagen als ver'klagen*, you should rather pity than accuse him. Comp. Eng. it is better to ex'cuse than to ac'cuse; 3) in Composition upon the principal and determining syllable which is usually secondary in tone (see below ): *Ich habe den Haus'herr', nicht aber die Haus'frau' gesehen*, I saw the master of the house, but not the lady of the house; *das Kleid ist nicht dun'felblau', sondern dun'felgrün'*, the dress is not dark *blue*, but dark *green*.

The prefix *ant* has in prose, as a rule, the primary tone, — *Ant'lig'*, countenance; *Ant'wort'*, answer; and also in its derivatives (parasyntheta) *ant'wor'ten*, to answer; *verant'wor'ten*, to answer for. With the poets, however, the tone in *antworten*



fluctuates for rhythmic reasons: *du ant'wor'test* or *ant'wor'test*, thou dost answer.

The particles *un* and *ur* have, as a rule, the primary tone: *un'woh'l*, unwell; *ur'bar'*, arable; *ur'thei'len*, to judge, decide. When repeated, each *ur* receives the primary tone: *llr'ur'groß-vater*, great-great-grandfather. . . .

Then follow the syllables with the secondary tone, the toneless syllables, and accentuation with foreign words and foreign terminations. . . .

#### RHYTHM OF PROSE.

The rhythmic value of syllables is denoted by the terms light and heavy. A syllable may be rhythmically light in which the vowel is long, as: *vor*, before; *für*, for; or rhythmically heavy in which the vowel is short, as: *ängst* in *ängstlich*, anxious; *sch* in *entsetzlich*, horrible. The law of rhythmic symmetry in German as in English calls for a just alternation of light and heavy syllables, i. e. one or two light syllables after a heavy one, as, *gëgëbën*, given; *er bëtëtë*, he prayed. A succession of heavy syllables or more than two light syllables would interfere with the law of rhythmic proportion. Rhythmic disproportion is found chiefly with heavy syllables and in compound words (see ). Simple words, or words formed with derivative elements, and which have three light syllables, are not frequent. Such are the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives ending in a short derivative syllable, and of the present participle, as: *ein lïëblichëres Mäddchen*, a more lovely girl; *ein lëchtgläubigërer Mann*, a more credulous man; *die lïedërlichstën Mënshën*, the most dissolute men. As many as four light syllables may occur with the comparative of adjectives formed from the present participles of some verbs: *ein bëlëibigëndërer Ausdruck*, a more insulting expression; *ein ängstlëgëndëres Gëschrei*, a more alarming cry. In uttering such words, one of the light syllables after the heavy one is made less light than is usual as a compensation for the wanting heavy syllable.

Comp. Eng. *unjustifiableness, unalterableness*, etc., etc. Good writers endeavor to avoid such awkward forms, which not only hinder rhythm and perspicuity, but which may also cause the loss of a syllable (see *Phonetic Decay* ). With the comparative and superlative of adjectives of three or more syllables English avoids this disproportion by means of periphrastic comparison: a more interesting girl, the most insulting reply, a more beautiful house, etc., etc. Comp. German: Es giebt kaum eine mehr verlockende Gelegenheit, there is scarcely a more enticing opportunity, etc., etc.

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### PHONETIC VARIATION.

Phonetic variation is due to a multiplicity of causes. Such are: a preference for certain sounds, the power of analogy, a difference in the conception of sound by the ear, a tendency to conformity, parasitic or intrusive elements, contraction and expansion. It may be due to causes purely physiological, as inability in production or indolence in utterance; to causes which have never been satisfactorily explained, as with Grimm's Law (see ); or to the influence of other sounds, i. e. euphonic, as with Assimilation (see ), etc. It exists in the midst of the highest civilization, even where uniformity of speech is claimed, in the same district or community, often even with members of the same household. It is just here that with our own English an insurmountable barrier is offered to a thorough reform in spelling. . . . .

Phonetic variation may be: 1) simple, pure, which involves all the changes suffered in the history of language by the material which constitutes words and word elements (letters, syllables, roots, and stems), so far as these changes have no intellectual significance; 2) phonetico-intellectual, which is not only a phonetic or material, but also an intellectual process. This is found with Word Formation, Inflection, Derivation, and

Composition. The exact point of separation between the two processes is, however, not always so easy to determine. . . .

Pure phonetic variation shows itself: 1) in comparing different languages, families of languages, so-called dialects, etc. Thus Sansk. *a* is represented in Greek by *α, ε, ο*; by Italic *a, e, o, i, u*; Goth. *a, i, u*; O. H. G. *a, i, u*. It may be: 1) historic: comp Gr. *ποῦς*; Lat. *pes*; Goth. *fotus*; O. H. G. *vnoz*; N. H. G. *Ḟuß*; Eng. *foot*; 2) dialectic: comp. Doric *κῶρα*; Ionic *κούρη* (Hom.); Attic *κορη*, girl, maiden, etc.; 3) written or graphic: comp. *Ἀθην* and *Ὀδην* (poetic, Luther, Rüdert, etc.), breath, etc., etc. It may be grammatical, as with the laws of euphonic combination in Sanskrit and Greek, etc. . . .

Phonetic shifting may be: 1) regular, as with Grimm's Law, in spite of the obstructions (see ); or 2) sporadic, as when Greek *ι* and *υ* represent Sansk. *a*, as: Sansk. *ac-va-s*, horse; Gr. *ἵκκος* and *ἵππος* (Lat. *equus*); Sansk. *nak*, *nak-ti-s*; Gr. *νύξ* (stem *νυκτ*); Lat. *nox*; or when Gr. *β* occurs for Sansk. *g*, as: Sansk. *gâ*, to go; Gr. *βα*, (*βά-σι-s*, *βαίνω*,) etc., etc.

Special, including: Pure Phonetic Variation; Figures of Phonology; Contraction; Etymological Variation; Euphonic Variation; Accentual Variation; Rhythm; Accentual Stagnation; Phonetic Disturbance and Decay, etc., etc., with ample illustration. . . . .

#### SPECIAL POINTS OF GERMAN ORTHOGRAPHY.

## DOCTRINE OF FORMS, OR MORPHOLOGY.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH AND THEIR FORMS.    ROOTS AND STEMS.  
 INFLECTION.    DERIVATION.    COMPOSITION.  
 OTHER FORMATIONS.

The Science of Language suffers to a certain extent from a terminology which is not only unsettled, but also misleading. Many of the terms come down to us with the seal and sanction of antiquity. . . . .

While the letters are the material elements of words, words with their proper relations of case, number, person, etc., etc., constitute the intellectual elements of language. In Morphology are discussed, then, the genesis and development of words from word-elements (roots and stems), as well as the various elements and methods of inflection, derivation, and composition. Phonological changes, however, may involve an intellectual process. Comp.: *Worte*, connected words, and *Wörter*, separated or disconnected words (hence *Wörterbuch*, dictionary); *schlecht*, bad, low, common, and *schlicht*, even, simple, smooth, artless, etc., which are both from O. H. G. and M. H. G. *slēht*, smooth, simple, even, friendly, etc.; Eng. *through* and *thorough*; *priest* and *presbyter* (Gr. *πρεσβύτερος*, elder); or the difference may be orthographic, as: *der Quell* (more poetic) and *die Quelle*, the spring, source; *Äthem*, O. H. G. *âtem*, M. H. G. *âtem*, and *Odem* (Luther, provin. and poetic), breath; A. Sax. *âscian* and *âcsian*; M. E. *asken*, *axien*; Eng. *ask* and *ax* (provin.) (see Metathesis    ); Goth. *hairto*; O. H. G. *herza*; M. H. G. *herze*; N. H. G. *Herz*; Eng. *heart*.

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The Genesis and Forms of Words, with examples from the earliest Aryan Speech, etc.

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## CLASSIFICATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

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## INFLECTION.

The Method and Elements of Inflection explained, with examples from earlier forms, Sanskrit, etc., etc. . . .

Inflection should be studied in connection with Syntax, where the phenomena of the former are fully developed. . . .

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## DECLENSION.

The New High German Method and elements explained by comparison with earlier Teutonic and other forms of Aryan speech. . . . .

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## THE ARTICLES.

## ORIGIN AND DECLENSION.

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The Def. Article contracted with prepositions, with examples of the usual forms in polite language.

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The contraction with Def. Article was formerly more frequent in the literary language than now. Others than those usually given occur, and mostly in folk-speech, folk-poetry, the ballad (Wieland, Bürger, etc.), and in humorous and serio-comic style: *aufm Schloß* (Goethe), at the castle; *hinterm Hause*, behind the house, etc., etc. Comp. the frequent contraction in M. H. G. of the demonstr. pronoun *der* with the foregoing or following word: *ans* for *an des*, without that; *ane'z gras* (Parz.), on the grass; *uffen téppich kniete sie* (Parziv. 4, 411.), she knelt on the tapestry (coverlet); *ann* for *an dem*, on the (that), etc., etc. Comp. Fr.: *du* for *de le*, of the; *au* for *à le*, to the, etc., etc.

## THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

## THE NOUN-SUBSTANTIVE, or SUBSTANTIVE.

## GENDER WITH THE NOUN-SUBSTANTIVE.

The distinction between the object and the word (noun-substantive) naming the object must be observed. Sex, a term applied for the most part to man and the lower animals (see below ), must not be confounded with gender, from the Lat. *genus*; Gr. γένος; Sansk. *g'anus*; Goth. *kunī*, *class*, *kind*, *sort*, which is a grammatical term or device, applied only to words, and not to the objects they name. Ancient grammarians (Quintilian and Varro) apply the term *genus* not only to noun-substantives, but also to verbs (active, passive, etc.), which has been continued by later grammarians. Masculine and feminine were applied originally to sex only, and then became grammatical terms for gender. Aryan speech shows that sex distinction was clearly understood in the beginning. The German word *Geschlecht* meant originally stock, descent, family, kind, class; O. H. G. *geslatc*, *kislahte* (comp. *Schlag* in *Menschen-schlag*, stamp, race of men), but was extended later to sex. *Das Geschlechtswort* (also *der Artikel*), the Article, is the gender-defining word. . . . .

The natural distinctions expressed by sex, grammarians call, for the sake of convenience, natural gender; the distinctions expressed by grammatical rules, grammatical gender. In spite, however, of the rules there was afterwards naturally much fluctuation, and especially at later periods when terminational decay set in. Then came in the mere external analogy of the word, which gradually became a determining principle for gender. In languages of secondary formation the original basis of gender is forgotten. Sanskrit has three genders which are indicated in the stem, and the inflectional changes. . . . .

The method of expressing gender by wholly different words, as with *man*, *woman*; *boy*, *girl*; *man-servant*, *maid-servant*, etc., does not come under gender as it was originally understood. . . .

New High German, like all the Teutonic languages, shows three genders, the masc., fem., and neut. The gender in earlier Teutonic was recognized by the form and inflection of the word. In New High German, phonetic decay has caused much fluctuation and confusion; hence the need of the Article (*das Geschlechtswort*), and the conjunctive demonstrative pronoun, in order to recognize the gender of the noun-substantive: *der Mann*, the man; *die Frau*, the woman; *der Tisch*, the table; *die Feder*, the pen; *das Haus*, the house; *eine Uhr*, a watch; *jener Stuhl*, that chair; *dieser Hund*, this dog, etc., etc. Many substantives have in New High German no longer the same gender they had in O. H. G. With some substantives (see Homographs, below ) the gender differs with the signification. Comp. *der Band*, the volume, and *das Band*, the riband; *der See*, the lake, and *die See*, the sea. This device was unknown in Old High German. Some substantives have changed their gender, and been made to conform, as with foreign words. The Latin names of rivers, for example, have become feminine in New High German, i. e. made to conform with *die Weser*, the Weser; *die Elbe*, the Elbe; *die Ems*, the Ems, etc. Such are: *die Tiber*, the Tiber; *die Rhone*, the Rhone, etc. *Der Rhein*, the Rhine (Lat. *Rhenus*), has remained masculine.

Many ancient masculines became feminines: *die Schlange*, the snake; *die Schnecke*, the snail; *die Schnepfe*, the snipe; *die Blume*, the flower. Some masculines became feminines or neuters; some neuters became feminines. . . .

The masculine was attributed to the strong, influential, powerful, defiant, haughty, bold; the feminine to the mild, gentle, tender, quieter objects; the neuter to the indefinite, unknown, undeveloped, general or universal, and hence found with many collectives, and the young of living beings: *das Lamm*, the

lamb; *das Kind*, the child; *das Kalb*, the calf; *Huhn*, chicken, etc. (See .) Some substantives have a double form, as *Quell* (masc.) and *Quelle* (fem.), spring, source, etc. With derivatives, form prevailed, as with the feminines in *ei*, *heit*, *feit*, etc. (see Grammatical Gender, below ), and with the neuters in *chen* and *lein* (see below ).

Relics of gender are found with the demonstrative *das*, that (Goth. *pa-ta*; Lat. *is-tu-d*; Sansk. *tát*), the interrogative *was*, what, etc.

Many substantives still fluctuate (see *incerta*, below ). This is especially apparent in comparing the literary language of N. H. G. with the dialects of Germany and with folk-speech. Grammatical gender in N. H. G. can be learned only by practice in reading, writing, and speaking. The German begins to learn it in the cradle as the Roman did the grammatical gender in Latin. With the substantive the English language has destroyed all formal grammatical gender. . . . By this uniformity, however, it has gained logically and intellectually. In English, sex determines class distinction for the most part. The attribution of sex to sexless objects occurs only with folk-speech, the poet, and in figurative language.

In German an object of the male or female sex may be represented by a noun-substantive of the neuter gender: *das Kind*, the child (male and female); *Vieh*, cattle; *Mädchen*, girl, etc.; or the names of sexless objects (material or abstract) may be masc. or fem.: *der Muth*, courage; *der Tisch*, the table; *die Tinte*, the ink; *die Liebe*, love, etc. The names of the stronger and larger animals are masc., as a rule; the names of the smaller and weaker are mostly fem. Many of the foreign names applied to foreign animals are neut.: *das Kameel*, the camel, etc. Exceptions are: *der Elephant*, the elephant, etc. The names of large birds and birds of prey are masc.; those of singing birds mostly fem. The gender of the names of amphibious animals fluctuates, while the names of small insects are mostly fem. (See *Epicenes*, below .)



Common Substantives are divided according to gender into: 1) such as name objects with sex; and 2) such as represent objects without sex.

#### COMMON NAMES OF OBJECTS WITH A SEX DISTINCTION.

These are either masc. or fem.: *der Mann*, the man; *die Frau*, the woman, etc., etc., etc. . . . .

Exceptions: *das Weib*, the woman, wife, etc., etc. . . . .

#### SPECIAL CLASSIFICATION

##### OF SUBSTANTIVES WHICH NAME OBJECTS WITH SEX.

The distinction here is expressed:

1) By independent words from special and distinct roots (heteroradical forms): *Mann*, man; *Frau*, woman, etc., etc., etc. (Lat. *vir*, *femina*.)

2) By means of derivation either inner or outer (suffix) (see Derivation ). Such are the substantives of motion (*substantiva mobilia*). Many take the *Umlaut* in the change. The feminines are formed from the masculines, as a rule, and mostly by means of the suffix *in*. Masculines in *e* drop this vowel in the fem. (see ): *Esel*, jackass, *Eselin*, she-ass; *Löwe*, lion, *Löwin*, lioness, etc., etc. Comp. A. Sax. *manna*, male-servant, *mennen*, female-servant; A. Sax. *fox*, *Fuchß* (O. H. G. *vuhs*), male-fox, *fyxen*, female-fox (Eng. *vixen*), N. H. G. *Füchßin*, M. H. G. *vihsinne*. . . . . Der *Cousin*, the male cousin, *die Cousine*, the female cousin, are respectively from the Fr. *cousin*, *cousine*. . . . .

The only exception is *der Deutsche*, the German, which has for the fem. *die Deutsche*, the German woman or lady.

Masculines from feminines are: *Tauber*, cock-pigeon, from *Taube*, hen-pigeon; *Wittwer*, widower, from *Wittwe*, widow, etc.

3) By means of obscure or forgotten composition: *Gänserich* (also *Ganser*), gander, from *Gans*, goose; *Enterich*, drake, from

Ente, duck (see Composition: *-rich* = *Herrſcher*); Bräutigam (Goth. *brupfaps* = *Vorgeſetter der Braut*), bridegroom (second *r* inorganic), A. Sax. *bryd-guma*, O. H. G. *brütigomo* = *Brautmann* (Goth. *guma*, O. H. G. *gomo* = *Mann, homo*). (See ), etc., etc.

4) By inverted composition in which the second element limits the first: *Hirſchboß*, stag (*hart*), *Hirſchuß* (also *die Hindin*), hind (*roe*); *Zebrahengſt*, male zebra, *Zebrastute*, female zebra. Thus also with *Männchen* and *Weibchen*: *das Taubenmännchen*, the cock-pigeon, *das Taubenweibchen*, the hen-pigeon, etc., etc. Comp. Thibetan: *ra pho*, he-goat, *ra ma*, she-goat. *Männchen* and *Weibchen* may be separated either with the genitive or with *von* and the dative: *das Männchen eines Adlers*, or *von dem Adler*, the male eagle, etc., etc.

The feminine is also expressed in elevated prose, in poetry, and in folk-speech by *Mutter* (prepositive or postpositive): *Hirſchmutter* or *Mutterhirſch*, the hind, etc., etc. Comp. A. Sax. *beo-módor*, bee-mother, queen-bee.

Noun-substantives may have one form and one grammatical gender for both sexes (Epicene Substantives). Masculine epicenes are: *Gaſt*, guest; *Liebling*, favorite, etc., etc. Comp. Lat. *anser*, *corvus*; Gr. *ὁ λύκος*. Feminine epicenes are: *die Weiſe*, the orphan; *die Schwalbe*, the swallow, etc. Comp. A. Sax. masc. *olfend*, camel; *bera*, bear; fem. *mûs*, mouse etc.

In some English dialects everything is called *he*.

Gender may be expressed by an attributive adjective with epicenes to give greater definiteness: *der männliche Elephânt*, the male elephant; *der weibliche Elephânt*, the female elephant, etc. This is a very common mode in N. H. G. Comp. Gr. *θήλεια* *ἔλαφος* (Pind.); *ἄρσεν* (later *ἄρρην*, see Assimilation); *θήλεια* *ἵππος* (Homer Od.), etc. Lat. *mas* and *femina*: *anser mas*, *anser femina*, etc., etc. A. Sax. shows an attributive substantive: *man-esne*, man-servant; *cwên-fugol*, female bird (comp. Eng. queen-bee, German *Bienenkönigin*); *man-cild*, man-child, *maeden-cild*, girl-child; *knave-child* (Chaucer). Comp. Chinese:

*nan*, male, masc., and *nin*, female, fem., from which are: *nan tse* = son; *nin tse* = daughter.

Substantives with a double gender (*communia*) do not occur in German. Such are in English *friend*, *neighbor*, etc. Comp. Lat. *civis*, *artifex*, etc. These are expressed in German by substantives of motion (see above): *Nachbar*, male neighbor; *Nachbarin*, female neighbor; *Bürger*, male citizen; *Bürgerin*, female citizen; *der Künstler*, the artist, artisan; *die Künstlerin*, the female artist, etc. In Schiller's *Maria Stuart*, Mary says to Elizabeth: *Regierte Recht, so läget Ihr vor mir im Staube jetzt, denn ich bin euer König* (for eure Königin), *If right prevailed, you would lie before me now in the dust, for I am your sovereign* (lit. king) ~~king~~. Greek shows *ὁ θεός*, *η θεός* (also *θηά*), etc., etc.

#### FULL TREATMENT OF GRAMMATICAL GENDER.

There are certain substantives which have the same orthography (Homographs), but which have a different gender. 1) Those with the same root (Homoradicals): *der Band*, the volume, and *das Band*, the riband, etc.; 2) those with different roots (Heteroradicals): *der Thor*, the fool; *das Thor*, the gate, etc., etc. (See above .) . . . . .

#### GENDER WITH COMPOUND SUBSTANTIVES.

The gender with these is mostly determined by the gender of the last element: *die Hausthür*, the house-door or street-door; *der Kirchhof*, the church-yard; *das Rathhaus*, the town-hall, etc.

Exceptions: *der Mittwoch* (made to conform; comp. *der Montag*, etc.), Wednesday, from *Woche*, week (feminine in all Teutonic); also *die Mittwoch* (Saxony, etc.); O. H. G. and M. H. G. *die mittawēcha*, *mittwochd*; *der Abscheu*, terror, horror, from *die Scheu* (first found about 16th century, and fem.), shyness; etc., etc. (See also, below, *der Langohr*, etc., etc.)

## FORMATIONS WITH -muth.

Some of these compounds are feminine; the larger number are masculine; a few fluctuate between the masc. and fem.

The following include the feminines of the language: ~~die Unmuth~~; die Unmuth, grace; Demuth, humility; Duldmuth, patience, or spirit of patience or toleration; Einmuth, unanimity, concord (usually Einmüthigkeit); Großmuth, magnanimity; Langmuth, forbearance, longsuffering; Sanftmuth, gentleness, meekness; Schwermuth, melancholy, dejection; Wehmuth, sadness, sorrowfulness, wofulness. All the others, except the few that fluctuate, are masculine. Of about sixty the following are the most usual masculines: der Edelmuth, generosity, magnanimity; Frohmuth, joyousness, cheerfulness; Heldenmuth, heroism; Hochmuth, haughtiness; Mißmuth, ill-humor, peevishness, discontent, etc.; Uebermuth, superciliousness, haughtiness, arrogance.

The following fluctuate: Gleichmuth, equanimity, usually masc., rarely fem.; Unmuth = Lust, Begier, Neigung (now obsolete with this meaning), strong desire or inclination, is prevailingly masc., but with its present meaning = grace (see above) it is fem.; Kleinmuth, pusillanimity, faintheartedness, despondency, is frequent both as a masc. and a fem.; Großmuth, magnanimity (see above) is generally fem., sometimes masc.; Starfmuth (= Gemüthsstärke), strength of soul or spirit, is masc. and fem.

Some occur as strong feminines already in earlier High German: Einmuth; M. H. G. *einmuote*, *einmuot*; Demuth; O. H. G. *diemuoti*; M. H. G. *diemuote*, *diemuot*; Langmuth; O. H. G. *langmuoti*, etc. Some of the feminines in N. H. G. have arisen from the inclination to follow these. A few of the N. H. G. masculines, however, represent ancient feminines: der Hochmuth; O. H. G. *die hohmuoti*; der Mißmuth; O. H. G. *die missimuoti*; der Uebermuth; O. H. G. *die ubarmuoti*; M. H. G. *die übermüete*. In O. H. G. occurs also the masculine *der upar-*

*muot*, *ubarmuot*; M. H. G. *der übermuot* (A. Sax. *ofer-môd*, neuter), which is formed with *muot* (Muth), and used, although not frequently, for the older *die uparmuotî*, *ubarmuotî*.

In Gothic we find the strong masc. substantive *môd* = *der Muth*, courage, *Zorn*, anger, wrath (comp. Chaucer, *moed* = wrath); Gr. *θυμός* (Luke 4: 28), *ὀργή* (Mark 3: 5), and in O. H. G. the corresponding masculine and neut. *muot*; M. H. G. *der muot* (A. Sax. *môd*). Gothic *môd* is not found in composition, and *muot* in O. H. G. but rarely in composition (see above). In Gothic occurs also the weak feminine *-môdei* (= *Gefinnung*), *mood*, *mind*, *inclination*, *disposition*, which like the corresponding O. H. G. feminine *-muotî* is found only in composition, as, Goth. *lagga-môdei* (Romans 9: 22), *langmuoth*, forbearance, longsuffering; O. H. G. *langmuotî*; Goth. *muka-môdei* (2 Corinth. 10: 1), *die Sanftmuoth*, gentleness, meekness. Hence all the later masculines in N. H. G. are formations with *Muth*; Goth. *môd*; O. H. G. and M. H. G. *muot*, while *-muotî* has been almost forgotten.

Certain Compound Substantives which are the names of inanimate objects (masc., fem., or neut.) are applied as nicknames to persons and animals. Some of these take the gender of the Substantive which usually names such persons or animals. Many fluctuate. Comp. *das Ohr*, the ear, and *der Langohr* (for *der Esel*), the jackass; *der* and *das Langbein*, the long-legged man, long-shanks, and also applied to the stork (*der Storch*) and to the hare (*der Hase*); *die Wurst*, the sausage, and *der Hanswurst*, the Jack Pudding. Comp. Fr. *Jean Potage*; *Jean Farine*; Ital. *pagliaccio*, etc., etc.

Science extends sex to plants with reference to their fructifying principle: *der männliche Palmenbaum*, the male palm-tree; *der weibliche Palmenbaum*, the female palm-tree, etc., etc., etc.. Comp. Fr. *des fleurs mâles*, *des fleurs femelles*.

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## DECLENSION WITH SUBSTANTIVES.

*Simple and Compound Common Substantives. Proper Substantives.*

In New High German the remains of ancient Teutonic declension are extremely scanty, and scarcely deserve the name of case-endings. The term is here used merely for convenience. As with all languages of secondary formation, we find also with N. H. G. much inflectional change and phonetic decay (see *Phonetic Decay* ). Modern English, as compared with the earlier forms, i. e. O. English and A. Sax., shows in this regard greater losses than New High German. Our English, however, has by the change gained logically and intellectually to a degree which is marvellous. . . . .

## DECLENSION OF SIMPLE COMMON SUBSTANTIVES.

1) Regular; 2) Irregular or Anomalous.

## REGULAR DECLENSION.

Here belong most of the Common Substantives in the language. Any arrangement, however satisfactory, is more or less disturbed by fluctuation in the so-called case-endings, chiefly in the plural, and often even with the same writer. This occurred to some extent also in the earlier periods of High German (O. H. G. and M. H. G.). Hence a convenient and practical arrangement is here attempted. Ancient declension will be referred to only so far as it will aid in explaining the difficulties involved.

Then follow general rules for termination.

## SPECIAL OR REGULAR DECLENSION OF COMMON SUBSTANTIVES.

Three declensions are here given. Since the original endings have suffered loss and decay, and many substantives have

shifted their original declension, the necessity for a third or mixed declension will be thoroughly understood. (See Comparative Table of Teutonic Declension .) The terms *strong* and *weak*, as usually employed in New High German, do not express satisfactorily their meaning in earlier Teutonic speech. The *Umlaut* which arose originally from assimilation (see Euphonic Sound Variation) is in New High German also a grammatical device, and employed as an auxiliary in declension to strengthen the plural notion. Some grammarians have arranged the Substantives under two declensions (called *strong* and *weak*), some have given eight declensions, others as many as ten.

The nom. sing., which is the form found in the dictionary, is here taken as the stem form. Earlier Teutonic shows special and characteristic stem endings: 1) *a*-stems: Masc. *tag-a*, Tag, day; neut. *wort-a*, Wort, word, etc., etc. (See Comparative Table .) . . . .

Then follow carefully arranged tables of all the endings of the three Regular Declensions with their classes, which are determined by the forms of the gen. sing. and of the nom. plur. . . . .

#### *1st Regular Declension.*

Characteristics. Paradigms of the various forms, etc., etc...

. . . . .

#### *2d Regular Declension.*

Characteristics. Paradigms, etc.

#### *3d or Mixed Declension.*

Characteristics. Paradigms, etc.

Irregular or Anomalous, Defective and Fluctuating Forms, and their explanation through Comparative Inflection.

. . . . .

Substantives with double or redundant singular endings, and a weak plural, as, Name, Namen, etc., etc., with paradigms and

a list of this class, including the fluctuations, etc., historically explained. . . . .

#### SUBSTANTIVES WITH IRREGULAR OR EXCEPTIONAL CASE ENDINGS.

Such endings occur with common substantives without the article. Some denote relationship, and may like Proper Names (see below ) take *n* in the dative and accusative sing. The feminines may take *s* in the gen. sing., as: Ich werd es Mutter(n), Vater(n), Tante(n) geben, I will give it to mother, father, aunt; meiner Mutter Bruder (Goethe) or Mutter's Bruder, my mother's brother, or mother's brother; Tante(s) Sohn (Bohme, Droysen, Gutzkow, Heine, Immermann, etc.), aunt's son; daß sie Mutter(n) (acc.) so verstanden haben (Gutzkow), that they have so understood mother; Minna's Bücher, also Minnen's Bücher, Minna's books; etwas Minnen sagen, to tell Minna something, etc., etc. Mama's Kleid, mamma's dress; in Mamaens Haus (Rahel), in mamma's house; sag' das Alles Mamaen, tell all that to mamma; and sag's (der) Mama, tell it to mamma (see also plural, below ), etc., etc.

Feminines with toneless *e*, ancient *en*, are now rare. They occur in the dative in adverbial expressions without the article and in Composition (see ) : auf Erden, on (the) earth; Erdensohn (Goethe), son of earth, mortal; Sonnenuntergang, sunset; meiner Frauen Schwester (Goethe), my wife's sister; — for the Virgin Mary in Liebfrauenkirche, Church of the Virgin Mary, or of Our (dear) Lady; and in Liebfrauenmilch, a Rhenish wine; ; Lebete herrlich und in Freuden(?) (Luke 16 : 19), fared sumptuously every day; Mit Freuden Einem dienen, (?) to serve one gladly, joyfully, etc., etc.

In New High German the ancient weak plural with the feminines is retained, while with many substantives the originally strong plural has become weak. Exceptional case-endings are found with: Nachts, or des Nachts, by night; zu Nachte, bei Nachte, at or by night, etc. (see below, and also Apparent Genitive), etc. . . . .



The primitive Genitive ending *-as, -s* (Sansk., Gr. and Lat.) is found for the most part in Teutonic speech. With High German, however, it is wanting with the feminine. Hence the § found here with feminines is not High German, but of foreign origin. O. H. G. shows exceptionally for *naht*, night (*Nacht*), besides its regular genitive sing., also *nahtes* (Kero). Comp. M. H. G. adverbial gen. *nahtes* (Iw. 6577), *des nahtes* (Nibel. 1108), *des Nachts*, at night; *des vinstern nahtes licht*, light of the dark night. This is explained by the influence of other adverbial forms expressive of the portions of the day, which are all from masc. subst.: M. H. G. *morgens*, *dēs morgens*; O. H. G. *dēs morganes*; N. H. G. *Morgens*, in the morning, etc. O. Friesic has: *nachtis*, *nachtes*, *thēs nachtes*, etc. (See also Apparent Genitive. .)

Defective Forms.

Fluctuating Forms.

Such forms are due to the confusion which followed the gradual decay of original inflectional endings; to the shifting of substantives from one gender to another, or to a striving after conformity, etc.

### DECLENSION WITH THE PROPER NAMES OF PERSONS.

In the beginning only Christian names occur. The name of the race or family arose for the sake of distinction. . . . As in English, many family names have arisen from occupations: *Müller*, *Miller*; *Schmidt*, *Smith*, etc. The nobility was known later by the place of residence or origin in connection with *von*, as *von Holzenborff*, etc., with the name of the place in the dative. When the name of the place is wanting, *von* is meaningless, as with: *Johann Wolfgang von Göthe*; *Johann Christoph Friedrich von Schiller*; etc. Some of the older German forms of the names of persons have been retained in New High German, as,

Minnä (O. H. G. *Minnā*) for Minnie (comp. Marie, Mary; Goth. *Maria*, *Marja*; O. H. G. *Marīa* and *Marjā*; eccles. Lat. and Gr. *Marīa* and *Māria*), etc. So also, instead of the weakened forms Otte, Brune, New High German has still the older Otto, Bruno, which have successfully resisted phonetic decay. (See .) . . . .

Number with the Substantive.

#### HOMOGRAPHS.

There are certain substantives which have the same orthography, but which differ in signification, inflection, and gender. Homographs of the same declension (homoclitic) are: der Band, the volume, die Bände, the volumes; and das Band, the riband, die Bänder, the ribands, etc., etc. These have the same stem (homothematic). . . . Homographs which differ in declension (heteroclitic) are:

Der Kiefer, the jaw (1st Declen.), die Kiefer, the jaws.

Die Kiefer, the pine (2d Declen.), die Kiefern, the pines.

Der Thor, the fool (2d Declen.), die Thoren, the fools.

Das Thor, the gate (1st Declen.), die Thore, the gates.

etc., etc. These have different stems (heterothematic), etc., etc., etc. Some of these arose from the unconscious retention of old forms. ~~This phenomenon was unknown in early High German (O. H. G. and M. H. G.).~~ Comp.: Eng. brother, plur. brothers and brethren (redundant plur.); Fr. *ciel*, plur. *ciels* and *cieux*, etc.

#### HETEROGRAPHS.

The following differ in declension (heteroclitic): der Trupp (1st Decl.), pl. die Truppen; and die Truppe (3d Decl.), pl. die Truppen; der Quell (1st Decl.), pl. die Quelle (rare); die Quelle (3d Decl.), pl. die Quellen (usual pl.). Das Quell is obsolete; etc., etc., etc. . . . .

## THE ADJECTIVE.

## OMISSION OF CASE-ENDINGS.

The *es* of the neut. Nom. Acc. (also Voc.) is often omitted in folk-speech, and also in poetry where it stands in connection with euphony and quantity: *Lieb Kind!* dear child! *mein einzig Wesen* (Goethe), for *liebes Kind!* etc. This omission occurred formerly also with the masc. (see *manch* ). A few examples are still found, as: *ein gar gefährlich* (for *gefährlicher*) *Mann* (Claudius), a very dangerous man; *ein thätig* (for *thätiger*) *Mann* (Goethe), an active (stirring) man. (See also Syntax .)

Here belong also: 1) foreign words of color: *das rosa Kleid* (also *Rosafleid*), the rose-colored dress; *des rosa Kleids*, of the rose-colored dress, etc.; 2) German adjectives of color which occur sometimes without inflection in connection with a neuter substantive without the article: *auf blau und grün Papier* (Goethe), upon blue and green paper, etc.

## NUMERALS AND PRONOUNS.

1) Definite Numerals; 2) Definite Pronouns; 3) Indefinites.

Here the terminology of the grammarians is both fluctuating and confusing. One hears the words pronoun and pronominal adjective, substantive pronoun, numeral pronoun, numeral adjective, etc., etc.

*Definite Numerals.**The Definite Pronouns.**Personal Pronouns.*

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A relative pronoun, properly speaking, is found in none of the Teutonic languages.

In Gothic the particle *ei* occurs as a relative suffix with the personal or demonstrative pronoun, and thus gives them the force of relatives: *ik-ei*, I who; *þu-ei*, thou who; *þuk-ei*, thee whom, etc. This particle is found oftencst with the demonstrative *sa*, *so*, *þata*, and thus: nom., *sa-ei*, *so-ei*, *þat-ei* (Lat. *qui*, *quae*, *quod*), etc. It is found, although but rarely, in O. H. G.: *der-i*, he who; *daz-i*, that which, etc. O. H. G. has also a relative particle in the demonstrative adverb *dar*. With Tatian occurs *thu thār*. Comp. A. Sax. *þe*, as in: *ik-þe*, I who, *þu þe*, thou who, etc., etc.

The determinative pronoun with the corresponding relative are correlatives, as: *ber — welcher*, *derjenige — welcher*, he who, etc. They are borrowed forms with a new application, and combine a pronominal with a conjunctive signification. (See Syntax .)

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## CONJUGATION. The Verb.

Here are included: Theory and Phenomena of Conjugation or Verbal Inflection (earlier and present). Notion and Elements. Difference between the root, stem, and the verbal notion with its various relations of voice, mood, tense, number, person, etc., so far as they do not require explanation in the Syntax.

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## SPECIAL ON THE ELEMENTS OF CONJUGATION.

PERSONAL OR FINITE VERBAL FORMS (*verbum finitum*).

New High German, like English, is poor in simple verbal forms, and hence makes use of so-called auxiliaries of mood, tense, and voice to a great extent, in order to paraphrase the syntactical relations of languages richer in simple forms, and which relations occur as elements attached to the verbal stem. With the loss or decay of the original elements the analytic for the synthetic became a necessity. Many such later forms are, however, capable of a variety of relations, which are often not clearly understood except by the context. This interesting subject will be discussed further on.

## VOICE.

There are in German as in English two voices, as they are called, the active and the passive. (See Syntax .)

*Infinitive.* (See also Derivation.)

The Infinitive sign in New High German is *en* (*n*). Comp. Sansk. *ana* as in *bhar-ana*; Goth. *bai-ran*; A. Sax. *beran*; O. H. G. *bëran*; O. Norse *bera* (*n* dropped); N. H. G. *gebären*, to bear, bring forth. Folk-speech often drops *n*, as, *habe'* for *haben*, to have, etc. O. E. shows *ien*, *ie*, as *lovien*, *lovie*. Mod. English has to love, yet *n* is occasionally found, as *lenden* (Spencer); *killen* (Shaksp.).

## THE PARTICIPLES.

*The Present Participle.*

The sign in Sanskrit is *ant*, *nt*; Gr. *ovr*, *vr*; Lat. *ent*, *nt*, earlier *unt*, *ont*; Goth., O. H. G. and M. H. G. *nd*; N. H. G. *nd*.

*CLASSIFICATION OF THE VERBS ACCORDING TO  
CONJUGATION.*

Derivative (New or Weak) Verbs. Stem (Old or Strong).  
Double or Mixed Forms (Old and New). Other Anomalous  
or Irregular Forms. Defective Verbs. Exceptional or Dia-  
lectic Forms. Reflexive Verbs. Compound Verbs (Sep. and  
Insep. Elements). Adjuncts of the Verb. Alphabetical List  
of the Strong Verbs. Comparative Conjugation.

The conjugation of the Old or Stem Verbs shows an earlier  
method. The Derived or New Verbs, however, are treated  
here first, since their conjugation is simpler, and because they  
constitute a class which is already larger and constantly in-  
creasing. . . .

Paradigms of the Active and Passive Forms, and a compar-  
ison with Ancient Forms (Gothic, etc.).

Orthographic Rules with the Finite or Personal and the Mid-  
dle Forms of the Weak or Derivative Verb. Rejection and  
Retention of *ē*.

There are in New High German, as in English and A. Sax.,  
only two simple tenses, the present and the preterit. From an  
early period occurs an Imperative only for the 2d person, and  
none for the third. The defective forms have been necessarily  
supplied by borrowed elements. (See .)

OLD OR STRONG (STEM) VERBS.

1) Reduplicating Verbs; 2) *Ablaut* Verbs.

Explanation of the phenomena of Inflection with each class.

Ancient Verbal Reduplication is in High German either obscured or lost. Variation of tense (present and past) expressed by variation of the root vowel, Grimm calls *Ablaut*, i. e. another than the original sound. (See Phonetic Variation.) Comp. *Ab* in *Abweg*, devious way, etc. With the *Ablaut* Verbs Grimm finds in every case the original sound or *Laut* (root vowel) in the present stem. Comparative Conjugation teaches us, however, that the root vowel is not *always* found in the present stem. Comp. German *binden*, to bind; Goth. and A. Sax. *bindan* (root in O. H. G. *pant*; Goth. *band*; Sansk. *bandh*, to bind), and Pres. Indic. *ich binde*, I bind (Goth. *ich binda*); Pret. Indic. *ich band*, I bound (Goth. *ich band, bund*). So also with *nehmen*, to take; *geben*, to give; *stehlen*, to steal; *biegen*, to bend, etc., etc. *Ablaut* was originally due to phonetic influence (see Phonetic Variation ). Its origin, however, was afterwards forgotten, and its application extended. It is not to be confounded with *Umlaut* (see ), which latter also shows itself with the strong verbs.

The verbs which reduplicated in Gothic are now apparently *Ablaut* verbs. Some, however, which show in Gothic both reduplication and *Ablaut* have in Old High German died out, while others have passed into one of the classes of the apparent *Ablaut* verbs. Some have assumed the inflection of the weak verb. The reduplicating verbs are usually classed with the strong (Grimm). The *Ablaut* verbs have come from verbs which formerly reduplicated. Reduplication occurred originally with the preterit stem of all stem verbs, but was later regarded as superfluous and gradually thrust out.

The strong verbs are divided into: 1) Strong Verbs which admit of classification; 2) Anomalous Verbs; 3) Verbs with strong and weak conjugation (double Forms); 4) Defective Verbs.

The division here is, as with declension, one of convenience. Comparative conjugation is employed to explain the difficulties

involved. No arrangement can supersede constant contact with the language.

*Strong Verbs which admit of Classification.*

Here belong such as may be arranged under distinct classes and sub-classes or groups. Each class is determined by the vowel of the infinitive, each group by the vowel of the preterit Indic. and Past Participle. . . . .

Only a few examples can be given here. The weak Imperative, as *blase* for *blas* (comp. *lobe*, praise [thou]), is often found with the strong verb. Each originally reduplicating verb will be pointed out as it occurs. With the poets for the rhythm, and in the Bible, the earlier *e* is often expressed, as also with the weak verbs. It is, however, usually omitted except when required for euphony or rhythm: *er bläset*, usually *er bläst*, etc. (see below, and ). The *Umlaut* is frequently omitted in folk-speech and dialectically.

THE *a* CLASS.

**blasen**, to blow (redupl.). Pres. Indic. *ich blase*, I blow; *du bläst* (poet *bläsest*, folk-speech *blasest*), thou dost blow; *er bläst*, (poet *bläset*, folk-speech *blaset*), he blows; *wir blasen*, we blow; *ihr blas(e)t*, ye blow; *Sie blasen*, you blow; *sie blasen*, they blow. Pret. Indic. *ich blies*, I blew; *du blieäst*, thou didst blow; *er blies* (*er bluß*, Gutzkow), he blew; *wir bliesen*, we blew; *ihr blieäst*, ye blew; *Sie bliesen*, you blew; *sie bliesen*, they blew. Past particip. *geblasen*, blown; Imperative, *blas* and *blase* (weak). Pret. Subjunct. *ich bliese*, etc. This verb is a relic of Reduplication. Comp. O. H. G. preterit Indic. *ich bliaa*, *plies*, *plès*, I blew. Goth. shows ~~no example of the Pret. Indic., etc., etc.~~ no example of the Pret. Indic., etc., etc.

Compounds: *ab-*, *an-*, *auf-*, *aus-*, *durch-*, *ein-*, *erblasen*, etc.



**falten**, to fold (redupl.). Only the past participle is preserved in literary language, and especially as an adjective: gefaltene Hände (Goethe), (Schiller, Robbers); etc., folded hands. Dialect. and obsolete: er fielt, he folded; past participle is gefalten, and gefaltet (more usual), folded. Relic of redupl. pret. O. H. G. *ich*, *er fielt*; Goth. *faiſalp*.

**laſſen** (better *laſen*, see § ), to leave, quit, etc. (Redupl. Pret.) Pres. Indic. *ich laſſe*, *du läßt* (or *läßt*), *er läßt* (or *läßt*), *wir laſſen*, etc. Pret. Indic. *ich ließ*, etc. Past particip. *geſaſſen*; Imperat. *laß* (*laſſe*), etc. The M. H. G. archaic infin. *lân* (contraction and apocope) occurs in earlier N. H. G. and sometimes later: *faſſen län* (Uhland), to let fall.

O. H. G. *lâzan*, Pret. Indic. *ich liaz* (relic of redupl.), Goth. *lêtan*, Pret. Indic. *lâlot*.

Compounds: *ab-*, *an-*, *auf-*, *aus-*, *durch-*, *ein-*, *entlaſſen*, etc.

**ſalzen**, to salt (Redup. Pret.), is now only weak except in the past participle, where it is both strong and weak, usually the former, and is used as an adjective: *geſalz(e)nes Fleiſch* (Goethe), salted meat; *eſ muß Alles mit Feuer geſalzen werden und alleſ Opfer wird mit Salz geſalzen* (Mark 9: 49), For every one shall be salted with fire, and every sacrifice shall be salted with salt.

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#### THE c CLASS.

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**eſſen** (better *eſen*), to eat (O. H. G. *ëzzan*, *ëzan*; Goth. *itan*). Pres. Indic. *ich eſſe* (*eſſe*), I eat, *du iſſeſt*, *er ißt* or *iſſet*, etc. Pret. Indic. *ich aß*, I ate, *du aßeſt*, *er aß*, etc.; Pret. Subj. *ich äße*, etc.; Imperat. *iß*; past partic. *gegeſſen*, eaten, which occurs already in the 17th century for the older *geſſen*, *geßen*; M. H. G. *gëzzen* (i. e. *g'ezzen*, *ge-ezzen*). The form *geeſſen* occurs often in the 16th century, and is the proper form (Stumpf, Gessner, and others); from it came the contracted form *geſſen*, as in the

Bible, with Goethe and others : *ich habe kein Brot gegessen*, I have eaten no bread, etc.

Compounds : *ab-, auf-, aus-, überessen*, etc.

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### THE *ie* CLASS.

**verlieren**, to lose (Goth. *fraliusan* ; O. H. G. *farliosan*). Indic. Pres. *ich verliere*, *du verlierest* (or *verlierst*), *er verliert*, etc. Pret. *ich verlor* (O. H. G. *ich farlos*), etc. Pret. Subj. *ich verlöre* ; past part. *verloren* ; Imperat. *verlier*, but more usual and not good *verliere* (weak). (See Rhotacism.) Obsolete are : *du verleurest*, thou dost lose ; *er verleuret*, he loses (Luther and others), *er verlieset*, he loses, and the Subjunctive : *er verlüre* (Luther), etc., etc.

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DOUBLE FORMS, or *Verbs with the Weak and Strong Conjugation.*

*Origin and Peculiarity.* (See also under the Strong Verbs,  
above .)

The Weak Verbs, as already stated, have increased in number in the course of time. Old German in comparison with New High German had more than double as many strong verbs. It was natural that by the side of the weak or new forms the older should frequently remain in use, since the transition to the monotonous and apparently regular forms was gradual. We find a series of verbs whose strong forms have been entirely thrust out by the weak. Others have lost the strong preterit, but retained the strong past participle by the side of the weak. The strong form of the past participle shows an inclination to become an adjective. Comp. *verwirren*, confused, and *verwirrt*, (since 17th century), confounded, perplexed (= *verlegen*), etc. Other verbs have still a complete weak and strong form, with a difference, however, in signification. Verbs with a complete weak and strong form with like signification have been least affected by the transition. Those which incline to the weak

conjugation are peculiar in not taking the *Umlaut* in the 2d and 3d persons of the sing. of the Present Indic. Verbs which have passed from weak to strong are rare (see above ). With *weisen*, to show, indicate, and *preisen*, to laud, to praise, the strong, but later forms are now quite established, while the originally weak forms are now archaic and found in the Bible, and with Luther and others, etc.

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### VERBS WITH COMPLETE WEAK AND STRONG FORMS.

The weak and strong forms may have: 1) The same signification; or 2) a different signification.

Weak and Strong Forms with about the same signification are: *dingen* (originally weak), to bargain for; Pret. Indic. *dingte* (*ding, dung*); past part. *gedingt* and more usually *gedungen*; *flimmen* (originally strong), to climb; Pret. Indic. *flomun* (and *flimnte*); past part. *geflommen* (and *geflimmt*), etc., etc.

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#### *Weak and Strong Forms with a different Signification.*

The weak form here is secondary or derived, and has on this account another signification than the original or strong. The strong forms are subjective, the weak objective with the following verbs: *verderben*, to spoil (subjective); Pret. Indic. *verdarb* (M. H. G. *verdarb*), past part. *verdorben* (M. H. G. *verdorben*); Imper. *verdirb* (M. H. G. *verdirp*); objective (factitive) = *verderben machen*; Pret. Indic. *verderbte* (M. H. G. *verdarpte*), past part. *verdirbt* (M. H. G. *verderbet*). So with: *erschrecken*, *schmelzen*, *schwellen*, etc. The weak forms of the following contain an iterative signification: *wiegen*, to rock, *wog*, *gewogen* (subjective); *wiegte*, *gewiegt* (objective) (= *schaukeln*, *wiegen machen*), etc., etc.

On the contrary, the following have only accidentally the same form in the infin.: *weichen*, to yield, retire (subjective), (M. H. G. *wichen* [strong]), *wich*, *gewichen*, and *weichen* = *weich*

fein, weidh werden or weidh machen (M. H. G. weichen), from weidh, soft, etc., which has been weak from the earliest period. So: bleidhen, to become pale (bleidh werden), and bleidhen, to make white, bleach, i. e. bleidh or weiß machen, from bleidh, white, pale, etc.

. . . . .

The weak form has prevailed least of all with the verbs which have the past participle always strong. Thus: heben, to lift; Pret. Indic. hob and hebte; past part. gehoben; schinden, to flay; schund, (schand) and schindete, geschunden. Some verbs, as braten, to roast, briet and bratete, gebraten, and backen, to bake, buk and backte, gebacken, are, until the present time, so little under the influence of the weak form, that they admit the *Umlaut* in the 2d and 3d pers. sing. Pres. Indic., as, ich brate, du brätst, er brät, etc. (See above, braten, and backen .)

. . . . .

The verbs therefore with the strong conjugation have, as the most primitive, subjective signification for the most part. The objective verbs, and especially those with the accusative (so-called transitives), conjugate weak, as a rule. Comp.: the subjective and strong biegen (also objective), bringen, ertrinken, liegen, etc., with the weak and objective (factitive) beugen, drängen, ertränken, legen, etc. Some show by the different infinitive form the derivation of the weak objective from the strong subjective. Comp.: bringen and drängen, etc., etc.

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#### THE ANOMALOUS VERBS.

These verbs, which are few in number—about twenty-five or thirty in all—require necessarily a separate treatment. So treated, they will be more easily understood and remembered.

The notion and origin of their anomalies can be explained only historically. Some show a mixture of different stems, others strong and weak inflection side by side. Here unusual structure, and the application of certain forms of an entire

mood and tense, are the most prominent phenomena. In most cases a certain defective condition is involved. The anomalies therefore rest especially: 1) upon the addition of other word-stems; 2) upon the difficulty in recognizing inflection, which arises mainly from syncope (see     ); 3) upon the mixing of temporal and modal relations; 4) upon irregular vowel change in the stem; 5) upon the attaching of weak endings to *Ablaut* relations. The verbs with these anomalies are such as occur most frequently, by which the forms have become worn off and unrecognizable, while the original and literal signification has become more general and abstract. Hence some of them have become mere auxiliary verbs (see     ), etc., etc.

Classification of the Anomalous Verbs, with their conjugation and history.

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<i>The Uninflectionals.</i>									
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

#### COMPARISON, (ADJECTIVE, ADVERB, ETC.)

Derivative and Periphrastic Comparison are usually treated under Declension with the Adjective. Since both have also to do with the Adverb, they are here discussed after the Uninflectionals. Derivative or Suffix Comparison belongs properly to Derivation. Although comparison is found chiefly with the adjective and adverb, yet it occurs also with other parts of speech (see below     ). Some adjectives and adverbs suffer no degrees of comparison. Three degrees are usually given: the positive or absolute, the comparative and superlative. With a limiting adverb the positive may also express comparison of equality or inequality: *Diese Blumen sind schön, aber jene sind außerordentlich schön*, these flowers are beautiful, but those are extraordinarily beautiful = *jene sind schöner als diese*. Comp. = *hoch, ziemlich hoch, sehr hoch, and himmelhoch*, high, pretty high, very high, as high as heaven; *hellbraun und dunkelbraun*, light

brown and dark brown; schön, beautiful, and mehr als schön, more than beautiful; diese Blumen sind eben so schön wie jene, these flowers are just as beautiful as those (see below ); dieses Haus ist nicht so alt, als (wie) jenes, this house is not so old as that one (see below ). A difference in comparison may be expressed by different adjectives: Dieses Kind ist hübsch, aber jenes ist reizend (= höchst anziehend), this child is pretty, but that one is lovely (charming). So with: gut, good, and vortrefflich, excellent, etc. The adjective with mehr may be omitted: Ich bin elend, aber er ist es noch mehr, I am miserable, but he is still more so, etc., etc.

#### COMPARISON WITH ADJECTIVES (*and Participles*).

Comparison is either derivative (suffix), i. e. expressed by means of er (r) for the comparative, and est (st) for the superlative; or periphrastic, i. e. expressed by means of the elements (adverbs), mehr —, more —, minder —, less —, etc. A quality may be added to an object either absolutely, i. e. without comparison, or relatively, i. e. by comparison with one or more objects.

Relative Degrees or grades express:

1) Equality: dieser Garten ist eben so schön wie der Ihrige; this garden is just as beautiful as yours.

2) Inequality, which may express:

a) superiority: ein schönere Bild, a more beautiful picture; das schönste Bild, the most beautiful picture.

b) inferiority: weniger (or minder) schön, less beautiful; nicht so schön, not so beautiful; am wenigsten schön or am mindesten schön, least beautiful.

Comparison with Adjective includes:

1) Observations; 2) Diagram of Scheme of Comparison, Derivative and Periphrastic; 3) Comparison of Equality; 4) Comparison of Inequality; 5) Positive, Comparative, and Superlative strengthened or intensified; 6) Adjectives without Comparison.

## RELATION OF EQUALITY.

The elements here are: *eben so* — *wie*, just as — as; *so* — *wie*, (*als*), so — as; as — as: *Karl ist eben so* (or *so*) *fleißig*, *wie Heinrich*, Charles is just as (or as) diligent as Henry. Comp. O. E. also — as, as — as; O. H. G. *alsô* — *alsô*; M. H. G. *alsô* — *als*; *als* — *als*, which last continued in use to the 16th century. The adverb *als* is now rarely used as a connective of equality, but as a connective of inequality. Usage fluctuated for some time.

Redundant form (*als wie*): *Ich bin so klug als wie zuvor* (Goethe), I am as wise as before. Note *wie* and *als* together: *Er ist gleich groß als Mensch wie als Künstler* (Waldau), he is as great as (a) man as he is as (an) artist; with two adjectives: *Er ist eben so gelehrt als klug*, he is just as learned as (he is) wise, etc.

The increase or diminution may be equal or proportional and expressed by: *besto* —, *je* — *besto*; *je* — *je*; *um besto*, etc. For *je* — *je* is found *um* — *so*, *um so*, (Tieck, etc.) Old forms are: *best* (Fischart); *beste* (Luther), etc., all of which will be explained by means of examples, etc., etc.

## RELATION OF INEQUALITY.

1) Derivative Comparison of Inequality; 2) Periphrastic Comparison of Inequality.

*Derivative Comparison of Inequality.*

Here the derivative elements *er* (*r*), *st* (*est*) are suffixed to the stem, and the declensional endings are suffixed to the elements of comparison: *schön*, beautiful; *schön-er*, more beautiful; *schön-st-*, most beautiful; *ein schöner Garten*, a beautiful garden; *ein schön-er-er Garten*, a more beautiful garden; *der schön-st-e Garten*, the most beautiful garden, etc.

Derivative Comparison of Inequality is:

1) homothematic, i. e. occurs with the same stem: *alt*, old; *älter*, older; *ältest-*, oldest; or 2) heterothematic, i. e. occurs

with different stems (called also defective, anomalous, irregular) : gut, good ; besser, better ; best-, best ; 3) redundant or pleonastic, and defective. Heterothematic comparison is exceptional (see below ). . . . .

Use of the Umlaut with Comparison.

The use of the *Umlaut* is increasing, especially in folk-speech. It is often found with classical writers even when disallowed by the grammarian : blaß, pale ; blässer, paler (Goethe), etc. A. Sax. shows the *Umlaut* in *lengre*, longer. O. E. preserves relics of the endings *ōr*, *ōst* by the side of *ēr*, *ēst*. Chaucer has *lenger*. Relics of *Umlaut* in Eng. are *elder*, *eldest*, besides which occur *older* and *oldest*. From this double form in Eug. arose a difference in signification, which, however, is not strictly observed.

*Heterothematic Derivative Comparison of Inequality.*

Here the comparative and superlative forms are borrowed. The only adjective of quality is gut, good ; comparative, besser, better ; superlative, best-, best. Comp. Lat. *bonus*, *melior*, *optimus* ; Gr. *ἀγαθός*, etc. (For viel, see below .) Homothematic comparative and superlative forms of gut occur dialectically, and also in the literary language, in a tone of irony or mockery : (Mein) Guteser ! for (Mein) Bester ! dear sir ! Guteser Herr Lieutenant ! (Holtei). The comparative güter (Rahel) for besser is quite unusual.

The ancient adverb baß (see þ) ; O. H. G. baz ; O. Sax. bat, bet ; Goth. [bats?], which occurred originally for besser, mehr, has been rejected, except with the poets and in folk-speech, where it is used as a positive for sehr, very, much, greatly, etc., and in the compound fürbaß (now almost obsolete), forward, further, etc. After its rejection the form besser was used as an adjective and adverb. Comp. Lat. *melior* and *melius* ; Fr.



*meilleur* and *mieux*. Luther has *baß* (for *baß*) *gefallen* (now *besser gefallen*), to please better.

With the Comparative occur the connectives *als* and *wie*, *als* *wie* (Goethe, etc.), *denn* (archaic, in elevated style, and especially in the Bible), *weder* (frequent with earlier writers, at present only dialectic), etc., for Eng. *than*. The particle *wie* usually stands with the comparison of equality, *als* on the contrary stands usually with the comparison of inequality. *Wie* for *als*, however, is not infrequent: *Röther wie Scharlach* (Voss), redder than scarlet. It occurs also with Gutzkow, Heine, and others, and frequently in folk-speech. Comp. Lat. *atque* (*ac*) for *quam* with the poets, Plautus, Virgil, Horace, etc., in common life and folk-speech: *Amicior mihi nullus vivit atque is est*, Plautus, etc., etc., etc.

The comparison between two or more qualities is usually expressed periphrastically, and only exceptionally by means of derivative comparison: *länger als breit* (Goethe and others), more long than broad, etc. Comp. Eng.: Your company is fairer than honest (Shaksp.), etc. (See below .)

Note the form: *der erste beste* (= *jeder beliebige*), the first that comes, anyone, any. Comp. (Lat. *primus quisque*, etc.; Fr. *le premier venu*): *Man mache einen Versuch mit dem ersten besten Stücke* (Lessing, *Laocoon*), Let one make an attempt with the first piece that comes (any piece). Comp. also Lat. *ut homonculus unus e multis* (Cic., *Tusc.*), *wie der erste beste aus der Menge*; *quemvis media elige turba* (Hor. Sat. 1. 4, 25), *wähle den ersten besten mitten aus dem Haufen*, etc.

Redundant and Defective Derivative Comparison of Inequality with the Adjective.

Historic and practical treatment given with illustrations.

### Periphrastic Comparison of Inequality with the Adjective.

ADJECTIVES WITHOUT DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

Such are: 1) those which from their nature and meaning seem incapable of a higher or lower degree, as, ganz, entire, whole; ewig, eternal; todt, dead; leer, empty, etc.; 2) those formed from the names of metals and minerals: bleiern, leaden; eisern, iron; golden, golden, etc.; 3) those used predicatively: allein, alone; angst, anxious; feind, inimical, etc. (See also Periphrastic Comparison with Adject. .)

The limit here is difficult to determine. Some of them are found, moreover, also in the comparative and superlative, both figuratively and literally : Die Ewigkeit noch ewiger machen (Börne), to make eternity still more eternal ; die tödtesten Menschen (Hackländer), the dearest men ; die blindeste Ergebenheit (Goethe), the blindest attachment ; da wurden sie ihm noch feinder (Luther, Bible, Gen. 37 : 5), and they hated him yet the more, lit. and they became still more inimical to him, etc.; etc. ; allein sein (Goethe), to be more alone. Comp. Lat. *aureus, totus, plenus, niger*, etc. Yet also : *plenissimis velis navigare* (Cic.) ; *vox grandior et plenior* (Cic.) ; *cælum pice nigrius*, Ovid, M. 15, 107 ; *magis unicus*, Plant., etc. Comp. Eng. : a purpler beverage (Byron) ; a lonelier life (Longf.) ; the perfectest herald of joy (Shaksp.) ; Fr. *mon plus unique bien* (Corn. Hor.) ; *mais ses œuvres seraient moins pleines*, Bossuet ; Gr. *πλειότερος*, Od. 11, 359, etc., etc.

### Declension of Comparative and Superlative Forms.

### Comparison with the Adverbs.

### COMPARISON WITH OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH.

(Subst., Pronouns, Numerals, etc.)

Substantive: Ich bin noch mehr Vogel als du (Lessing), I am still more of a bird than thou; Er ist weniger Narr als Spitzbube,

he is less a fool than a knave. Comp. Ital. *egli è più pittore che scultore*; Fr. *il est plus poète que philosophe*; Sansk. *strī*, woman, *strītarā*, more of a woman. Such occur in Lat. with comic authors in jest: *nullus me est hodie Poenus punior* (Plaut.); comp. Ital. *fratellissimo*; Fr. *le plus âne* (La Fontaine); Gr. βασιλεύτερος, βασιλεύτατος.

Pronoun: Du bist mein und nun ist das Meine meiner als jemals (Goethe), (thou art) you are mine, and now mine is more mine than ever; Ich werde das Meinigste thun, I will do what I can, all that is possible, or in my power, etc., etc.

#### *Equivalents of Comparative Forms.*

Such are: Die Rose ist die Königin (= die schönste) der Blumen, the rose is the queen of flowers; diese Königin (= vorzüglichste) der Städte (Lessing), this queen of the cities. Comp. King of kings; Lord of lords, etc., etc.

### DERIVATION AND COMPOSITION.

Including: 1) Observations; 2) Origin of the different Parts of Speech; 3) Multiplied Formation; 4) Entire Expressions; 5) *Ablaut* and Rhyming Formations; 6) Use of Hyphen; 7) Formative Elements with Comparison, Diminution, Augmentation, and Intensity; 8) Formative Elements with Gender, etc.

. . . . .

## SYNTAX.

## INTRODUCTION.

Syntax treats of the formation of sentences by means of words and clauses. Here the phenomena of Inflection are developed and applied. Words placed together without definite relations do not constitute a sentence. The words of an infant may, however, convey the meaning of a sentence. The missing elements may be guessed—logically supplied. Even in literary language with its complete development occur unmistakable traces of this gradual progress in language from its infancy, as, herein! for kommen Sie herein! come in! (See Ellipsis, the Vocative, the Imperative .) Morphology and Syntax constitute the intellectual side of language. A sentence may be expressed by the simplest form of the finite verb: geh! go! [sprich! speak! etc.

## FORMS OF THE SUBJECT.

*Redundant Subject.*

It occurs: 1) for rhetorical reasons to emphasize some particular word, phrase, etc.; 2) for metrical reasons in poetry, and especially in folk-song; 3) in long sentences for the sake of perspicuity. It may be a personal pronoun and prepositive: Sie gefiel mir, diese Idee (Lessing), it pleased me, this idea; Eng.: And they cross'd themselves for fear, All the knights at Camelot (Tennyson); or postpositive: Die Tugend, sie ist kein leerer Schall (Schiller), virtue is no empty sound; Eng.: The Lord of hosts, he is the king of glory (Ps. 24: 10). So A. Sax. and O. E. The sentence may be interrogative: Ihr Bruder, bleibt er noch mein Freund? Your brother, does he still remain my friend? The subject may be a demonstrative pronoun:

Wer in der Noth Euch helfen kann, der ist Gott, It is God who can help you in distress ; or one of the neut. pronouns, es, it, they ; das, dies (dieß), this, that, etc. : Das Böse, das der Mann dem Manne zufügt, das vergißt sich schwer (Schiller), The evil which man inflicts upon man is with difficulty forgotten (difficult to forget), etc., etc. Comp. : It is to you, good people, that I speak (Shaksp.).

Anacoluthic Subject (Interrupted or Disconnected Construction).

(See Figures of Syntax .)

### *Apparent Subject.*

It is found with es in : es ist jetzt Winter, it is now Winter, for Winter ist jetzt ; es war Nacht, it was night ; es sind Menschen, die . . . , there are men who . . . ; es braust der Wind, the wind roars, is roaring, etc., etc.

Then follow : Forms of the Predicate ; Special Treatment of the Simple Sentence ; Kinds of Simple Sentence ; Expansion and Necessary Elements of the Simple Sentence, etc.

## VERB IN THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

Existence lies at the root of every condition or action expressed by the verb ; hence *sein* is the fundamental verb which connects the subject with the predicate. Comp. : Gott ist (= existirt), God is (= exists), and Gott ist allmächtig, God is all-powerful ; der Mann ist in festem Schläfe, and der Mann schläft fest, the man is in a sound sleep, and, the man sleeps soundly, etc.

With every verb a subject is either expressed, as, der Mensch denkt, Gott lenkt (prov.), man proposes, God disposes ; or implied, as with the verbal forms expressive of the manifold natural phenomena involving an unknown or hidden force or agent,

but whose existence is presumed or recognized by the notion (result or influence) contained in the verb: *Es regnet*, it rains; *es schneit*, it snows, etc. (See so-called Impersonal Verbs .)

. . . . .

### SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE VERBS.

. . . . .

The division of the verbs into subjective and objective is here chosen and preferred on account of its simplicity and logical value. Every verb contains a notion (condition or action) which either remains with the subject, as, *das Kind schläft*, the child sleeps; *der Hund läuft*, the dog runs; *der Knabe ist fleißig*, the boy is diligent; *Gott ist*, God is (exists); *es regnet*, it rains, etc., etc.; or is directed to an object outside of the subject: *Mein Vater schreibt einen Brief*, my father is writing a letter; *das Mädchen sang ein schönes Lied*, the girl sang a beautiful song, etc.

With grammarians are found the traditional (Priscian and others) terms transitive and intransitive. The former is usually applied only to the objective verbs which take the accusative. Some grammarians divide into: transitives in the stricter sense, i. e. such as take an accusative object, and transitives in the broader sense, i. e. such as take the genitive or dative object. Others (as Heyse) divide the intransitives into subjective, as, *schlafen*, to sleep; *gehen*, to go, etc.; and objective, i. e. those which take the gen. or dat. object, as, *bedürfen* (Gen.), to need; *spotten* (Gen.), to mock; *helfen* (Dat.), to help, etc. The terms as usually applied are both misleading and illogical. Many German verbs which now have the acc. object had formerly the gen. or dat. (see Case with the Verb, below), while the logical relation, however, has remained unchanged. Comp. also: *Einem helfen*, to help one, and Lat. *juvare, adjuvare aliquem*; *spotten über Etwas, Jemandes, einer Sache*, to deride, mock, etc. something, some one, and Lat. *ridere, deridere*, etc.; *folgen* (dat.), to follow, and Lat. *sequi* (acc.); *dem Schrecken folgen Blässe und Zittern*, *terrorem pallor et tremor consequitur*

(Cic. Tusc. 4, 8, 19). The Latin language fluctuated greatly in this respect, while shifting with its offspring, the Romanic tongues, is clearly perceptible. Many verbs also fluctuate in New High German. (See Case with the Verb .)

Objects sometimes coalesce with the accusative verbs and thus form with them complete notions. Comp.: *Hunger leiden* or *haben* and *hungern*, to suffer hunger and to hunger. So: *Theil haben*, also *theilhaben*, to share; *Statt finden*, also *stattfinden*, to take place; *Spott üben* or *treiben* and *spotten*, to make sport of, mock, etc. (See Composition .) It is noteworthy that the substantives of the coalescent forms lose their power to take the Article, and with it their independence. Verbs which, as a rule, necessarily take the acc. object are those which denote *doing, having, possessing, giving, taking, seeing*, etc. (See Case .)

Many verbs are both subjective and objective without change of form, as, *brechen*, to break; *schlagen*, to strike; *stürzen*, etc. Others change their form and inflection. Comp. the strong subjective *dringen*, *fallen*, etc., and the weak objective *drängen*, *fällen*, etc., etc. (See .)

### THE PASSIVE VOICE.

Earlier Aryan speech (Sansk., Greek, etc.) shows that the Passive was in form a derivative conjugation (see Conjugation). Gothic has relics of a Derivative Passive in the present, while the preterit is expressed by the past participle and the tenses of *visan*, *sein* (*wesen*, see .), to be, and *vairpan*, N. H. G. *werden*; in A. Sax. by *beon*, *vesan*, *veorðan*; in Eng. by *be*, *was*. Thus Goth. *jah daupidai vesun allai in Iaurdane ahvai fram imma* (Mark 1: 5), and were all baptized of him in the river Jordan; vulg. *et baptizabantur*, etc.; Ip afar patei atgibans *varþ Iohannes* (Mark 1: 14), Now after that John was put in prison (Luther: *überantwortet ward*); (vulg.: *Postquam autem traditus est Johannes*).

The Passive Conjugation in New High German is periphrastic. The element or factor is *werden*, to become, to grow, get, etc. Comp. O. H. G. *wërdan*, *wërthan*, to take a turn, direction, arise, grow, etc., etc.; Lat. *vertere* (Sansk. *vr̥t*), *verti*, *versari*, *fieri*, etc. In O. H. G. the Passive was expressed by the past participle with *sîn* (*wësan*) and *wërdan*. In M. H. G. *wërdên* served especially for the tenses of incompletion: *wird geseit*, is said; *sîn* for the tenses of completion: *ist geseit*, has been said (*dictum est*). We find *ist* also employed as present: *Er ist gehizen Gunther* (*Niebelung.*), he is called (his name is) Gunther. New High German in having a special auxiliary for the passive has a great advantage over English and the Romanic languages. O. E. had *worthen* down to the 14th century. Fr. has exceptionally: *à quel point ma vertu devient-elle réduite!* (Corneille, *Hor.*)

*Passive with the Personal Forms of the Verb.*

Besides the usual auxiliary of the Passive in New High German (*werden*), others are also employed (see below ).

With the Passive the object of the active voice becomes the subject as in English. The agent is expressed in the dative and for the most part with the preposition, *von*. It occurs exceptionally with the pure or unprepositional dative. (Comp. Lat., Gr., and see below .) The Passive serves to give prominence to the object and to the action suffered by that object, while the agent is made subordinate or less important. The importance of the object may be further enhanced by the suppression of the agent: *Der Schüler ist gelobt worden*, the scholar has been praised. (See below .) For the same reason *man* with the Active Voice is frequently used as the equivalent of an Indefinite Passive, i. e. the Passive with an indefinite or suppressed agent (see below): *man hat den Schüler gelobt*, lit. one has praised the scholar (see *man* ). Comp. *Alle tadeln ihn*, all blame him; *er wird von Allen getadelt*, he is blamed by



all; er wird getadelt, he is blamed, and man tadelt ihn, lit. one blames him (he is blamed).

The so-called Impersonal Verbs (transitive and intransitive), the Reflexive and Reciprocal Verbs, have no Passive.

The Passive is either Complete or Incomplete.

#### COMPLETE PASSIVE.

In New High German, as a rule, only the objective verbs with the accusative, and with a definite subject in the nominative, have a complete Passive, i. e. a Passive in all the personal forms of the verb. (See also so-called Impersonal Verbs, and Case .) Exceptions in New High German are occasionally found, as with folgen, to follow (now only with dat., formerly also with acc.), and helfen, to help, now, as a rule, with the dat., yet also in the older language, in the Bible, and with some moderns (Auerbach, Börne, Chamisso, and others), with the acc., etc. The participle gefolgt as Passive is found with Möser, Goethe, Gutzkow, and others. The Passive of helfen is found with Brockes, Claudius, Fichte, Möser, Goethe, and others, etc., etc. In Greek a complete Passive may also occur with verbs which take the gen. or dative. The use of the Passive in English is strikingly free—indeed it occurs almost without restriction—and even with verbs which are joined to objective limitations by means of prepositions, as, *to be disposed of*; *to be called on*; *to be met with*; *to be spoken of*; *to be heard of*; *to be referred to*; *laughed at*, *accounted for*, *trifled with*, etc. O. E. shows few of these. In Mod. Eng. it is due to some extent to the gradual loss of distinctive inflectional endings.

In New High German most of the objective verbs with the accusative, and with complete forms in the active, have a complete Passive. With a few it is unusual; with a few others it is extremely rare; while with some others it is not found. To one or the other of these exceptional classes belong: haben, to have; besitzen, to possess; enthalten (= in sich halten), to con-

tain; fassen, to contain; angehen, to concern (= betreffen, berühren, kümmern); heißen (= befehlen), to bid, order; jammern, to excite pity, etc., etc. In spite of the grammarians a few examples are found with: haben, to have, possess (Arndt and others). Comp. Lat. *habere* (= behaupten, inne haben, besitzen, hold, possess, etc.) as in *Hispaniae tribus legionibus habebantur* (Tacitus, a. 4, 5); besitzen, to possess (comp. Fr. *posséder*); as with Goethe, Görres, and others: von der Liebe besessen sein, to be possessed by love, etc. With heißen, to enjoin, bid, order, the Passive is rare: Er wurde Etwas zu thun geheißen; he was ordered to do something. (See also Forms of Predicate, and the Nominative.) etc. . . .

### THE VERBS *sein* AND *werden*

*With the Past Participle of Verbs which have an Accusative Object.*

Pure Passive Participles come from verbs with an accusative object. Such verbs may be properly divided into two classes. To the 1st Class belong those the past participles of which show the action to be completed, as; tödten, to kill; vollenden, to finish, etc. To the 2d Class belong those verbs the past participles of which show the action to be incomplete, continuous, as hassen, to hate, etc.

#### SPECIAL.

##### 1st Class.

Such are: abtragen, to wear out; bauen, to build; besorgen, to look after, provide; drucken, to print; einladen, to invite; entscheiden, to decide; endigen, beendigen, vollenden, to finish, complete; erfahren, to learn, hear; erschöpfen, to exhaust; finden, to find; gebären, to bear, bring forth; gewinnen, to gain, win; leeren, to empty; lernen, to learn; machen, to make; retten, to save, rescue; sagen, to say; schlagen, to strike; schmücken, to adorn; schreiben, to write; tödten, to kill; thun, to do; vergessen, to forget; verlassen, to quit, abandon; verlieren, to lose; ver-

rathen, to betray; zerreißen, to tear asunder; rend; zerstören, to destroy, etc., etc. This is the larger class of the two.

## ILLUSTRATION.

## Progress or Continuance of the Action.

## IMPERFECT TENSES

*Present.*

Das Haus wird gebaut, (= ist im Bau begriffen,) the house is in course of construction, is being built (Longfellow and others), is building (Goldsmith, Rogers, and others).

*Præterit.*

Das Haus wurde gebaut, (= war im Bau begriffen,) the house was in course of construction, etc.

*1st Future.*

Das Haus wird gebaut werden, (= wird im Bau begriffen sein,) the house will be in course of construction, etc.

*1st Conditional.*

Das Haus würde gebaut werden, (= würde im Bau begriffen sein,) the house would be in course of construction, etc.

- etc., etc., etc.

## Completion, Result of the Action.

## PERFECT TENSES.

*Elliptical Perfects.* | *Full Perfects.**Present Perfect.*

Das Haus ist gebaut, the house is built.

Das Haus ist gebaut worden, the house has been built.

Comp.: Das Haus steht schon gebaut da.

*Præterit Perfect, or Pluperfect.*

Das Haus war gebaut, the house was built.

Das Haus war gebaut worden, the house had been built.

Comp.: Das Haus stand schon gebaut da.

*2d Future, or Future Perfect.*

Das Haus wird gebaut sein, the house will be built.

Das Haus wird gebaut worden sein, the house will have been built.

Comp.: Das Haus wird schon gebaut da stehen.

*2d or Perfect Conditional.*

Das Haus würde gebaut sein, the house would be built.

Das Haus würde gebaut worden sein, the house would have been built.

Comp.: Das Haus würde schon gebaut da stehen.

Present and Perfect stand in close contact in the Active. With the proper Perfect Tenses of the Passive, which, as shown above, include the Present Perfect, the Pluperfect, the Future Perfect, etc., the past participle worden (for geworden, see i) is often suppressed, in order to enhance the realization or actuality of the past action, when the action has ceased and is fol-

lowed by a condition or result. The elliptical periphrastic tenses are very frequent with later New High German writers, and occur especially with the poets and in elevated prose style. The suppression of *worden*, however, is not the only difficulty which arises here for the student. It must be remembered that the participles (present and past) are ~~middle~~ middle forms (see ), and approach more or less nearly the adjectives in value. With the Present Participle the notion of incompletion, continuance, is combined, while with the Past Participle, especially of many so-called transitive verbs, we find the notion of completion, or result. Many Past Participles in German as in English and other languages have completely lost their verbal force and become true adjectives. Certain participles and adjectives show the same form. Many participles have as adjectives assumed a different meaning. Hence, as in English, it is not always so easy to distinguish between the participle and the adjective. With the suppression of the temporal notion the past participles of the verbs of the 1st Class easily assume the value of mere adjectives. Many of them may be also represented by an adjective or a participle. In Italian many of this class have as adjectives even become mutilated in form, as, *adorno* (for *adornato*), adorned, from *adornare*; *carico* (for *caricato*), charged, loaded, from *caricare*, and many others.

#### EXAMPLES OF THE 1ST CLASS.

Der Brief ist geschrieben (i. e. fertig), the letter is written (i. e. ready, finished). From the combination with *sein*, which may be regarded as a present, is formed a so-called 2d Perfect, which occurs with Goethe and others: Der Brief ist (or war) schon geschrieben gewesen, the letter was, has been (or had been) already written (= was ready). Comp.: Etwas ist (steht) in dem Buch des Schicksals geschrieben (Goethe), something is written in the book of fate; Auf eben das italienische Papier, auf welches die Briefe gedruckt sind (Lessing), upon the same Italian paper, upon which the letters are printed; Die Flasche ist geleert, and

die Flasche ist leer, the bottle is emptied, and the bottle is empty ; Das Buch ist verloren, the book is lost ; Der Ring ist ein Jahr verloren gewesen ; ich habe ihn erst heute wieder gefunden, The ring has been lost for a year ; I have (did) not found (find) it again until to-day ; Er war verloren (= zu Grunde gegangen) und ist gefunden [gefunden] worden (Luke 15 : 24), he was lost, and is found ; Er ist verloren ! Ich bin noch verlorener (Kleist), He is lost ! I am still more lost. Comp. Lat. *perditus sum* (Adject.) (Plautus) ; Wir wurden durch das Arbeiten erschöpft, we were (became) exhausted by working ; wir sind nach dem Arbeiten erschöpft, we are exhausted after working ; vom Laufen erschöpft sein, to be exhausted from running, Lat. *cursu confectum, exanimatum esse* (Caesar) ; Lat. *totus ager circa exhaustus erat* (Livy, 31, 38), die ganze Gegend war ringsum erschöpft (worden). If the action is predicated as completed or perfect, then the perfects with both auxiliaries occur : er ist erschöpft gewesen, he has been (was) exhausted, and er ist erschöpft worden, he has been (become) exhausted ; Meine Geduld ist erschöpft (= alle, zu Ende), my patience is exhausted, spent ; Fr. *ma patience est à bout*. Comp. Die Kugeln sind alle, wir werden neue gießen (Goethe), (= zu Ende, erschöpft, verbraucht), The bullets are exhausted, we will mould new ones. Comp. Der Dieb ist gefangen worden, ist gefangen, bleibt gefangen, The thief has been caught, is caught, remains a prisoner ; Die Thüre dort bleibt verschlossen (Goethe), (= bleibt zu, zugemacht,) The door there remains-closed (to) ; er war verschlossen (adject.), close, reserved ; Du bist versteckt und still (adject.) (Goethe), Thou art secret (close, sly) and silent (quiet) ; Er ist im Jahre 1812 geboren, and er wurde im Jahre 1812 geboren, he was born in the year 1812 ; Lat. *natum esse ad dicendum* (Cic.), zum Redner geboren sein ; Nicht fünf Jahre bin ich geboren [alt] (Goethe), I am not five years old. Comp. Lat. *annos natus unum et viginti* (Cic.) ; für die Welt geboren sein (Goethe), to be born for the world ; Nicht Alle werden als Genies geboren (Immermann M.), Not all are born geniuses ; Er ist frei geboren, he was born free. Comp. : Eng. In Cambria are we born, and



~~Subject), Let this be said between us in the strictest confi-~~

~~dence~~ Comp.: er ist geliebt for beliebt (adjective), he is beloved; Fr. *il est aimé* (= *amatur*, not *amatus est*). Comp.: Er wird gehasst, he is hated, ist gehasst worden, has been hated, and ist verhasst (adjective), is hated (despised, odious). The past participle verhasst, now used adjectively, is all that is left in New High German of the verb verhasßen. In elevated style occurs the optative subjunctive with sein: Gelobt sei Gott .. um die Sonne (Kosegarten) (for um der Sonne willen, für die Sonne), praised be God for the sun; Deß [now dafür] sei Gott gelobt! (Luther), God be praised for that (it)! Eine Waare wird (also ist) sehr verlangt (= begehrt, gesucht), a commodity (ware) is in great demand. Note the Perfect: Er war allgemein geliebt (adject.) gewesen (Stilling), he had been universally loved (beloved); Sehr geliebt (adject. = lieb) war ihm Jener (Voss, II. 1, 381), That one (he) was very dear to him, etc., etc.

The substantive which stands for the agent is also found sometimes in the unprepositional dative: Mächtige Felsen standen von Urzeiten her, jedem Wechsel unangetastet (Goethe), mighty rocks stood from the earliest times (remote antiquity) untouched by any (every) change; Ein Herz, das auch dem Guten erweicht ward (Grimm), A heart, which was (became) also softened by the good. Comp. Gr.: τί πέπρακται τοῖς ἄλλοις, what has been done by the others? etc.

### *The Preposition durch.*

. . . . .

### OTHER PASSIVE AUXILIARIES THAN *werden*.

Such are occasionally found, as: 1) kriegen (vulgar), to seize, get, receive, etc. (Low German krigen, krygen), and found with Goethe, Immermann, and others (see bekommen); 2) bekommen, to get, receive, etc.: das Buch bekam ich geschenkt (= als, zum Geschenk), for das Buch wurde mir geschenkt, I received the book as a present, the book was presented to me; ich bekam die Blumen zugesandt (= sie wurden mir zugesandt), the flowers were

sent to me; geholfen bekommen (Kinkel) for geholfen werden, to be (become) assisted. Comp.: Eng. From Asia all other portions of the globe became peopled; How came you thus estranged? (Shaksp., Love's L. L. 5, 2); Ital. *la porta viene aperta*; Why did you get married? (Dickens); 3) erhalten, to receive, get (with Gutzkow, W. Humboldt, and others): Ich erhalte Bücher manchmal von meinem Vetter zugesandt, for Bücher werden mir manchmal von meinem Vetter zugesandt, books are sent me sometimes by my cousin, lit. I get books sent me, etc. Comp.: My two sisters got their fortunes paid (Th. Hook); He got it done (Carlyle); 4) gehen, to go, etc.: Etwas geht verloren for wird verloren, Something is lost; Alle Hoffnung ist verloren gegangen, All hope has been lost. Comp.: to go unrewarded (Shaksp., Temp. 4, 1); to go distracted; Span. *la cosa va vendida*; *ir perdido*; Fr. *La chose s'en va faite* (= *elle est sur le point d'être achevée*); *La conjuration s'en allait-dissipée* (Corneille, Cinna III, 4).

Certain so-called intransitive verbs show the passive force in their active forms: heißen, to be called, have the name of (= genannt werden); beginnen, anfangen, to begin, commence; endigen, enden, to end, terminate, etc. Dieser Knabe heißt Karl, this boy's name is Charles, (he is named Charles,) (Lat. *vocor Lyconides*, Plaut., and *nominor*); das heißt gelogen, that is called lying (see also so-called Impersonal Verbs); Die Schlacht beginnt (= wird begonnen), the battle begins, is beginning. Comp. Lat. *postquam apud Cadmiam pugna coepit* (Livy); Ein altes Märchen endigt so (Goethe), an old story (tale) ends thus; das Schauspiel fängt um sieben Uhr an, the play begins at 7 o'clock. So also: verschmachten, to languish, starve; vor Durst verschmachten, languish, to die of thirst; vor Freude sterben, to die of joy, Lat. *gaudio perire* (Plin.); vor Hunger sterben, to die of hunger, Lat. *fame perire*, also *necari, confici* (Cic.); vor Kälte sterben, frigore mori (Hor. Ep.), etc.

Note English: The flagon fills (Longfellow) — füllt sich, wird gefüllt; Corn sells at a good price — verkauft sich, wird verkauft;



While my favorite air is singing (Sheridan) — *gesungen wird* ;  
 While the ballad was reading (Goldsmith), *gelesen wurde* ; A  
 great experiment was making (Macaulay) — *wurde gemacht* ;  
 Plutarch's Lives are reprinting (Murray) — *werden wiedergebrudt* ;  
 His eyes filled with tears — *füllten sich*, — *wurden* — *gefüllt* ;  
 These apples keep well, — *halten sich gut* (or *lange*) ; The occa-  
 sion offered, — *bot sich dar* ; The door opened, — *öffnete sich*,  
*wurde geöffnet* ; etc., etc., etc.

Passive expressed by Reflexive Verbs ; Passive with the In-  
 finitives and Participles ; Case with the Passive.

*Tense and Modal Auxiliaries.*

TENSE AUXILIARIES (*sein, haben, thun*, etc.)

Already in Old High German occur the auxiliary *hapan*, to have, for the so-called transitive notion, and the auxiliary *wesan*, to be, for the so-called intransitive notion. Gothic expresses the future not only by means of the present, but also periphrastically with *haban* ; *visan*, to be ; *skulan*, shall or will ; *duginnan*, to begin. In Middle High German the future is expressed by the present, or with the present of the verbs *suln* (sollen) and *wellen* (wollen) as auxiliaries. In New High German the periphrasis of the future occurs usually with the present of *werden*, which is rare in Middle High German.

Besides the regular forms in the compound tenses, English shows quite a number of periphrastic forms, which enable this language to express a greater variety of relations than we find in New High German. Some denote emphasis, as, I do praise ; I did praise, etc. (see below). Others denote continuing action by means of the verb *to be* with the present participle in all the active tenses : I am going ; I was praising ; I have been praising, etc. (see Conjugation). These periphrastic forms

are already in A. Sax. Comp. also M. H. G. *als ich des be-  
tende bin daz* (Iw. 4172), As I am expecting that, etc. Ex-  
amples occur also in the 15th and 16th centuries in N. H. G.  
(see Present Particip. ). Comp. Goth.: *vas Iohannes daup-  
jands* (Mark 1: 4), *taufte* (Luther); vulg., *Fuit Johannes in de-  
serto baptizans*, John did baptize (was baptizing). Another  
form in English is the periphrastic future which denotes an im-  
pending action: I am going to read, *ich werde* — *ich bin im Be-  
griff(e) zu lesen*. Comp. A. Sax. *ic gâ raedan*; Fr. *je vais lire*,  
etc., etc. (See Tense .)

In New High German the verb *thun*, to do, is found with an  
infinitive of a dependent verb. This occurs in folk-speech,  
folk-song, and in modern prose. It may be expressed with in-  
version for the sake of emphasis or to give prominence to the  
infinitive: *Loben thu ich ohne Bedenken* (Goethe), I (do) praise  
without hesitation; *Neden that er nicht* (Werner), he did not  
speak, etc. It may occur without inversion or emphasis, but  
rather pleonastically, which is quite usual in folk-speech:  
*Zweitens thut die Geschichte lehren*, etc. (Immermann), In the  
second place history teaches, etc.; *So lange er thut walten*  
(Schiller), As long as he reigns. It occurs in the Imperfect  
Indic., as *that*, or more usually *thät* (M. H. G. *täte, taete*, see  
) : *Die Schneelawine that das Wiesenstück verderben*, etc. (Werner),  
The avalanche of snow did ruin the meadow-land, etc.; *Abge-  
storben allen Freuden thät sie jedes Labfal meiden*, etc. (Stolberg),  
Insensible (dead) to all joys, she did avoid every comfort.  
The periphrasis with *thun* begins at an early period in New  
High German and occurs with Goethe, Heine, Claudius, Rück-  
ert, Uhland, and others. Comp. M. H. G. *daz ir enschumpferen  
tuot* (Parzival). The use of the periphrasis with *do* is of wide  
... extent in English, where it is, however, not always clear  
whether a decided emphasis is meant or not. This form goes  
back to O. E., where it occurs especially in the ballad and in  
romantic poetry. (See also Tense .)

The verb *thun* also frequently represents a preceding verb: *Wirßt du hier bleiben?* will you remain here? *Ja, das thu ich*, yes, I shall do so; *Tugend gebiert sein Herz, wie das Gras mit Blumen* der süße Mai *thut* (gebiert) (Simrock), His heart brings forth virtue, as the sweet May does the grass with flowers. This is in English of frequent occurrence, and in every form of the spoken and written language. Comp. Lat. *bestiae simile quiddam faciunt* (Cic.), die Thiere thun etwas Aehnliches; *sedulo opus facite, ut ego facio*, Arbeitet fleißig, wie ich thue, work diligently, as I do. In Romanic it is pervading. Comp. also M. H. G. *ich fürhte iuch alsô cleine, als der habich tuot daz huon*, I fear you just as little as the hawk does the chicken; A. Sax.: *pā behidde Adam hine und his wif eac svā dide fram Godes gesihtē* (Gen. 3: 8), lit. And Adam hid himself from the presence (sight) of God, and his wife did (so) also (likewise).

Then follow: Declensionals in the Simple Sentence; The Uninflectionals in the Simple Sentence; Augmentation and Intensity; Case, which includes: 1) Case with the Verb; 2) Case with Declensionals; 3) Case with the Uninflectionals; 4) Interjectional or Exclamatory Case; Absolute Case, etc., etc.; and Arrangement in the Simple Sentence.

## THE COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES.

1) The Compound Sentence or Coördination; 2) Complex Sentence or Subordination. Quasi-Clauses, etc.

### THE COMPOUND SENTENCE OR COÖRDINATION.

The Compound Sentence contains two or more coördinate clauses, each of which is grammatically complete, and independent of the other: *Der echte Schüler lernt aus dem Bekannten das Unbekannte entwickeln, und nähert sich dem Meister* (Goethe), The real scholar learns to develop the unknown from the known,

and approaches the master. They may be the principal clauses or the dependent clauses of a complex sentence: *Mein Freund ist krank und muß zu Bette liegen; daher kann er heute weder arbeiten, noch uns besuchen; My friend is sick and must keep his bed; hence he can neither work nor visit us to-day.* (See Complex Sent., below .) A complex sentence is a combination which contains one or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses: *Soll ich darum das Veilchen unter die Füße treten, weil ich die Rose nicht erlangen kann (Schiller), Shall I trample the violet under my feet, because I can not obtain the rose.* (See below .)

Coördination is frequent in description, where the separate clauses form distinct features of the picture. The order or arrangement of the coördinate clauses is often unimportant or arbitrary. It is often determined by the matter, or by the intention of the speaker. Coördination is more general than Subordination. It is of special importance in poetic statement and description. It is of earlier origin than Subordination, and hence prevails in child-speech and folk-speech. Coördinate clauses may be independent of each other, and yet dependent upon a principal clause: *Mein Bruder hat mir geschrieben, daß er krank ist, und daß er nicht kommen kann, my brother has written me that he is sick, and that he can not come.* Coördination is of special significance also in artificially developed prose, since it is well fitted for combining together the accessory clauses of a period.

Coördinate clauses may be either connected by means of conjunctive particles (conjunctions and adverbs), etc., or they may occur side by side without such connectives. The former is usually called Syndetic Coördination, the latter Asyndetic Coördination. Comp. *Es hörte auf zu regnen, und die Arbeiter gingen wieder an die Arbeit (Syndetic), The rain ceased, and the workmen went to work again; and Es hörte auf zu regnen; die Arbeiter gingen wieder an die Arbeit (Asyndetic).* Asyndetic Coördination is often used to bring a succession of events rapidly.

to a climax. It gives vivacity and energy to a relation or description.

Tell says :

Ich lebte still und harmlos. — Das Gefchöpf  
War auf des Waldes Thiere nur gerichtet,  
Meine Gedanken waren rein von Mord.

(Schiller, W. Tell.)

Comp. : I pitied thee, Took pains to make thee speak, taught thee each hour One thing or other (Shaksp. Temp. 1, 2.)

(See Asyndetic Coördination below .)

Contraction of the Compound Sentence.

#### SYNDETIIC COÖRDINATION.

The conjunctions combine not only clauses, but also words. Other particles, which merely serve for emphasis or explanation, or occur as expletives in the sentence, are to be distinguished from the conjunctive particles. Such are : *gar*, quite, at all ; *eben*, even, just ; *nun*, well, now ; *ja*, yes, indeed, etc. (See Adverbs .) The Conjunctions are usually divided into coördinating and subordinating. It is noteworthy, however, that this distinction can not be thoroughly carried out. The Conjunctions give not only the mutual relations of the clauses, but determine more exactly the proper signification of the sentence. Upon these facts is based a classification of the clauses. With Syndetic Coördination the relations are : Copulative, Disjunctive, Adversative, Causal, and Illative. Each connective must, however, be specially noted in order that its grammatical and logical value may be appreciated. With Syndetic Coördination the connection is more formal, and the logical relations are more distinct, than with Asyndetic Coördination. (See also Conjunctions .)

## COPULATIVE COÖRDINATION.

The term copulative applied to the conjunctions which are here used fails to explain the exact relations expressed by them. They must be looked at separately or in sub-classes.

**Und**, and, etc.; O. H. G. *anti*; M. H. G. *unte*, *und*; Goth. *jah*, and enclitic *-uh*, as in *qvapuh*, (Mark 5: 41,) and (he) said. This conjunction combines not only words, clauses, and sentences, but also like and unlike. It was formerly less limited in application than now. Its usual office is that of a simple connective of two or more clauses of equal grammatical and logical value. By it, however, are expressed other relations. (See below .)

With two or more clauses of equal value *und* occurs, as a rule, only before the last: *Jetzt war der Mops verschwunden, die schwer geärgerte Tante lag zu Bett, acht Tage darauf war sie gestorben, und der Nefte erbte den größten Theil ihrer Hinterlassenschaft* (G. Freytag, S. u. H.), *The pug-dog had disappeared, the sorely vexed aunt lay in bed, eight days afterwards she was dead, and the nephew inherited the largest portion of the property she left.*

It is found: 1) with the combinations of notions which are either opposed or cognate: *Er ist weit und breit bekannt*, he is known far and wide; *Sie wandelten auf und ab*, they wandered up and down; 2) in word-coupling and: a) with alliteration: *hoffen und harren macht Manchen zum Narren*, hoping and delaying make many a man a fool; *Wind und Wetter dienend*, wind and weather permitting; b) with the repetition of the same word: *mehr und mehr verlegen*, more and more perplexed (puzzled); *Jemand durch und durch kennen*, to know one thoroughly; or 3) with a distributive notion: *sie gingen je zwei und zwei*, they went two and two. Comp. A. Sax. *tvâm and tvâm* (Mark 6: 7); 4) with iterative action: *wir plauderten und plauderten bis Mitternacht*, we chatted and chatted until midnight. Comp. *Whilst I say, he lies, And lies, and lies* (Shaksp., Rich. II, 4), *indem*

ich sag', er lügt, und lügt und lügt. It may be explanatory, parenthetical, emphatic, etc., and in German is usually strengthened by zwar, indeed, etc.: Hier ist eine Blume, und zwar eine schöne, here is a flower, and (indeed) a beautiful one. Comp.: Speak the truth, and the whole truth (Shelley); I heard a humming, And that a strange one too (Shaksp., Temp. 2, 1), Ich hör' ein Summen, Und zwar ein sonderbares; A knight ther was, and that a worthy man (Chaucer, C. T. 43); Lat.: *At laudat, et saepe virtutem* (Nep. Milt. 3, 4); *Unam rem explicabo, eamque maximam* (Cic. Fam. 1, 8); Fr.: *J'avoue et hautement, monsieur, que je le suis* (Corneille).

Initial und serves to express a close and immediate connection with a preceding clause: Ich habe Ihnen Etwas Wichtiges zu sagen. Und was denn? I have something important to tell you. And what then? Comp. "Yet ask"—"And shall I have?" (Shaksp., Rich. II, 4, 1.) It is often found in poetry, especially in lyric poetry, and with Schiller and others. It is frequent with Goethe in poetry and prose, in the Bible, folk-speech, child-speech, and often without any special aim or connection: Und er ging wiederum hinaus an das Meer; und alles Volk kam zu ihm, und er lehrte sie (Mark 13: 2), And he went forth again by the sea; and all the multitude resorted unto him, and he taught them. (So Vulg. *et, que.*) Comp. Fr. *Et je puis voir répandre un sang si précieux! Et je laisse avec lui périr tous ses aïeux!* (Racine, Andr. 111, 8.) (See Multiplied und, below.) Initial und occurs as an intensive in animated and impassioned discourse: „Ich kann Ihnen nicht helfen.“ „Und Sie haben es mir doch versprochen?“ “I can not help you.” “And yet you have promised me to do so?”

#### REPEATED OR MULTIPLIED und, (Polysyndeton.)

The multiplication of und is frequent in the Bible, in child-speech, folk-speech, folk-stories, old legends, ballads (Bürger, Uhland, Schiller and others), with the illiterate, with descriptions, and in proverbs. It serves to collect and unite the

clauses into an uninterrupted chain of phenomena, and occurs where vivacity is desired either before several or all of the clauses, etc. If, on the contrary, each clause is to receive special attention, then *und* is dropped before all. (See Asyndetic Coördination, below.)

Und immer höher schwoh die Fluth;  
 Und immer lauter schob der Wind;  
 Und immer tiefer sank der Muth. (Bürger.)

Comp. Fr.: *On égorge à la fois les enfants, les vieillards, Et la sœur et le frère Et la fille et la mère* (Racine, Esther, 1, 5). It is frequent in the Bible: Und er hieß das Volk sich lagern auf die Erde. Und nahm die sieben Brode und die Fische, dankte, und gab sie seinen Jüngern, und die Jünger gaben sie dem Volk. Und sie aßen alle (Matth. 15: 36, 37). (So vulg. et.) So Mark 11: 15 (Goth. jah, vulg. et), etc.

The conjunction *und*, like the corresponding conjunction in other languages, is often found in combination with other particles: *und so*, and so, then; *und zwar*, and indeed; *und doch*, and yet; *und deshalb*, and therefore, etc., etc.

#### OTHER RELATIONS OF *und*.

This earliest, and most frequently used of the New High German conjunctions represents now, as it did formerly, also other relations. It occurs for *aber*, but; *doch*, yet; *daher*, hence, therefore, etc. Coördination with such relations occurs often for Subordination, and imparts energy and vividness.

It occurs in Adversative clauses: *Meinem Haupte war der Strich gedroht, und (for aber; doch) das Gure fällt* (Schiller, M. St.), my head was threatened by the blow, and (for but, yet) yours falls; *Ich sah den Feind, und ich erschlug ihn nicht* (Schiller), I saw the enemy, and (= but, yet) I did not slay him; *Wie oft habe ich wollen deine Kinder versammeln, wie eine Henne ihr Nest unter ihre Flügel; und ihr habt nicht gewollt!* (Luke 13: 34) (for *ihr habt doch* [*jedoch*] nicht gewollt! or *aber ihr habt*,



etc.), Eng. : and ye would not! (vulg. *et noluisti?*) Comp. : God made the country, and man made the town (Cowper); A. Sax. Ic ville mild-heortuysse and nâ onsägdnyssse, I will have mercy and not sacrifice (Matth. 12 : 7), Ich habe Wohlgefallen an der Barmherzigkeit und nicht am Opfer (Luther). Comp. Fr. : *tu connais l'amour et tu n'es pas humain!* (Ducis).

It occurs in a clause containing a consequence or result (for so) : Thun Sie das, und Sie sind verloren, do that, and you are lost, = wenn Sie das thun, so sind Sie verloren, if you do that, (then) you are lost. Comp. A. Sax. : Gelyf vitôdlíce, and héo bið hál (Luke 8 : 50), believe only and she shall be made whole; so wird sie gesund (Luther); (vulg. *et salva erit*); Fr. *vienne encore un procès, et je suis achevé* (Corneille). With a temporal relation (consecutive) : Ich war eben nach Hause gekommen, und er besuchte mich (for so besuchte er mich), I had just reached home, and (when) he paid me a visit. It occurs for daher, deshalb, in a clause preceded by another with a causal force : Ich war gestern krank, und konnte nicht zu Ihnen kommen, I was sick yesterday, and could not come to your house (= daher konnte ich, etc., or weil ich gestern, etc., konnte ich, etc.); der Knabe ist sehr träge, und lernt nichts, the boy is very lazy, and learns nothing. (See also above .)

It is found with a clause for the Infinitive (with Lessing and others), but is not worthy of imitation : Sei doch so gütig, und sage mir, etc. (for mir zu sagen), pray be so kind as to tell me, etc. (lit. and tell me); Thun Sie mir den Gefallen, und bleiben Sie bei uns (for bei uns zu bleiben), do me the favor to remain with us. It occurs for the Relative Pron. welcher, etc. „Was soll ich thun?“ sprach Veitel und erhob sich von seinem Sitz (G. Freytag, S. u. H.), “What shall I do?” said Veitel who (lit. and) rose from his seat; Und siehe, einer trat zu ihm und (for der) sagte : Guter Meister, was soll ich Gutes thun . . . (Matth. 19 : 16), And behold, one came and (who) said unto him, Good Master, what good thing shall I do . . ., etc.

. . . . .

ASYNDETI<sup>O</sup> COÖRDINATION.

. . . . .

Complex Sentence or Subordination and Superordination, containing: Notion and Explanation of the difference between Coördination and Subordination; Relations of Mood and Tense in the Complex Sentence; The grammatical and logical value of the Subordinate Clauses, and the basis of their Classification into: Substantive Clauses; Adjective Clauses; and Adverbial Clauses; Direct and Indirect Interrogative Clauses; Direct and Indirect Statement; Multiplication of the Principal and Subordinate Clauses; Mixed Forms, i. e. Coördination and Subordination.

Extension or Amplification, and Abridgment.

Ellipsis with the Complex Sentence.

Arrangement with the Complex Sentence.

The Period.

Figures of Syntax.

Punctuation.











